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The evolving role of social media in food remitting: Evidence from Zimbabwean Migrants in Cape Town, South Africa

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DECLARATION

I declare that *The evolving role of social media in food remitting: Evidence from Zimbabwean Migrants in Cape Town, South Africa* is my own work. The work has not been submitted for any examination or degree in any other university. In addition, all the sources I have used or quoted have been acknowledged and indicated by complete references.

Full name: **Sean Thulani Sithole** Date: 08/03/2022

Signed: *Sithole*

DEDICATION

Dedicated to those who never give up on their goals and dreams against all odds. As Martin Luther King Jr. remarked: "If you can't fly, then run; if you can't run, then walk; if you can't walk, then crawl, but whatever you do, you have to keep moving forward."

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Contents

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

- AFSUN - African Food Security Urban Network
- AEG - Advisory Expert Group
- AOL - America Online
- BOP - Balance of Payments
- BOPCOM - Balance of Payments Committee
- CBD - Central business district
- CFR - Cape Floristic Region
- COGTA - Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
- CSSNs - Computer-supported social networks
- DRC - The Democratic Republic of the Congo
- EFT - Electronic Fund Transfer
- ESAP - Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
- FAO - Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
- FDI - Foreign direct investment
- FNB - First National Bank
- FTLRP - Fast Track Land Reform Programme
- GDP - Gross domestic product
- ICT - Information and Communications Technology
- IFAD - The International Fund for Agricultural Development
- IMF - International Monetary Fund
- IRC - Internet Relay Chat
- ISPs - Internet service providers
- MARS - Migration and Remittances Survey
- MENA - the Middle East and North Africa
- MDC - Movement for Democratic Change
- MTOs - Money transfer operators
- NELM - The New Economics of Labour Migration
- NGOs - Non-governmental organizations
- NPISHs - Non-profit institutions serving households
- SAMP -The Southern African Migration Programme
- SMS - Short Message Service
- SNS - Social networking services
- SNS - Social networking site
- RSS - Really Simple Syndication
- UCT - University of Cape Town
- UGC - User Generated Content
- UNDESA - The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
- UNESCO - The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
- UN-Habitat - The United Nations Human Settlements Programme
- UNICEF - The United Nations Children's Fund
- US - United States
- UWC - University of the Western Cape
- WFP - The World Food Programme
- WHO - The World Health Organization
- ZANU PF - Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front
- ZIMRA - Zimbabwe Revenue Authority

ABSTRACT

In the global South, food remittances play a significant role in the food and nutrition security of many households, especially low-income families. However, in the last two decades, debates and research on migration, remittances, and development have primarily focused on cash transfers. Non-cash remittances such as food transfers have received limited attention. The bias of being solely attentive to cash remittances is alarming. It conceals an in-depth and comprehensive grasp of food remittances' developmental and significant food security role in the global south. In addition, food remitting is a complex phenomenon that involves social networks, and emerging studies underscore how social media is transforming migrant networks. Yet, the connection between social media and migration outcomes such as remittances have been under-researched. This study investigated the emerging role of social media in the cross-border transfer of food remittances in the setting of Zimbabwean Migrants living in Cape Town, South Africa. Specifically, the research aim was to examine the role of social media in the food remitting characteristics such as the motivations, channels, nature, the part of the family/household and challenges encountered.

The research introduced an original investigative study focusing on the emerging role that social media and migrant networks play in facilitating cross-border food remitting. Notably, the study was based on a mixed research method, the intermix of quantitative and qualitative research techniques. This was done using questionnaire surveys on 100 participants and 10 in-depth interviews. Therefore, the research procedures were conducted using the pragmatic approach by combining the positivistic and interpretivist methods. The social capital theory was utilised as the theoretical framework of the study. The social capital theory underscored the significance of migrants networking with their social connections on social media to facilitate the transfer of food remittances. The results uncovered that social media plays a vital role in the motivations, nature, channels, family/household links and addressing the challenges experienced in the food remitting process. The emerging trends, such as the use of digital transactions and mobile technology in the transfer of food remittances, were noteworthy in the study in the backdrop of the COVID-19 lockdowns and travel restrictions that disrupted informal channels.

In conclusion, in the transmission of food remittances, social media platforms played significant roles as communication facilitators, enabled content sharing, were resources for valuable information, assisted in accessing the channels to transmit food and operated as pathways for social networking. Therefore, social media networking facilitates the transfer of food remittances. The contribution of this study is primarily on the complex and indirect connection between social media, migrant networks and the channelling of cross-border food remittances. The study recommends that policymakers, researchers and migrant communities pay more attention to (1) cross-border food remittances and their impacts on households' food and nutrition security. (2) Technological innovations such as social media, digital platforms and mobile technology that contribute significantly to channelling food remittances.

Key Words

- Food remittances
- Social media
- Social capital
- Social networking
- Migration
- Migrants
- Development
- Zimbabweans
- Cape Town
- South Africa

"…social media are not only new communication channels in migration networks, but also that they actively transform the nature of these networks…First, they enhance the possibilities of maintaining strong ties with family and friends. Second, they address weak ties that are relevant to organizing the process of migration and integration. Third, they establish a new infrastructure consisting of latent ties. Fourth, they offer a rich source of insider knowledge on migration that is discrete and unofficial. " (Dekker and Engbersen, 2014: 401)

1. CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

Debates and contestations on the developmental aspect of migration have grown and expanded in the last two decades (Bakewell, 2008; Brønden, 2012; Crush, 2012; Crush and Tevera, 2010; De Haas, 2012; Dinbabo and Badewa, 2020; Maimbo and Ratha, 2005; Majee et al., 2019; Plaza, Navarrete & Ratha, 2011; Sithole and Dinbabo, 2016; Skeldon, 2008). Remittances that have contributed immensely to many communities' macro and, more importantly, micro-levels are at the heart of these discussions. Over the last two decades, the quantity of remittances globally has risen substantially (World Bank, 2019). For example, the World Bank (2021a) estimated that remittance transmissions to low-and middle-income countries (LMICs) were to reach $589 billion that year. Remittances have become an essential topic in developmental contestations and the connection between migration and development amongst researchers, academics, policymakers, and governments. Wide-ranging debates, discussions and research on migration's pessimistic and optimistic developmental contribution and remittances have been debated and contested (De Haas, 2010).

On one side, there is a recognition of the significance of remittances at the macro-level or for economic growth, and the perspective that utilising remittances at the micro-level or household consumption hinders productivity or development (De Haas, 2005; De Haas, 2010). The contrary view is that remittances are essential at the micro-level and for household income sources or consumption, especially in times of crisis (De Haas, 2005; De Haas, 2010). Noteworthy, Crush (2012) argues that viewing remittances for general consumption or livelihood as impeding development or productivity is a massively narrow point of view and gives less developmental focus to households' food security and requirements. Corresponding

viewpoints emerge in a study by Sithole and Dinbabo (2016) that asserts that remittances are essential to households by affording them an income source to access food and general needs. Smith and Floro (2021) corroborate the importance of remittances by arguing that remittances commonly afford more protection against food insecurity in lower-income countries. Therefore, concurring with the importance of remittances for household consumption, this study argues that remittances for micro use are developmental because they assist in personal consumption, access to basic needs, food insecurity reduction and poverty mitigation.

There is an extensive wealth of studies/research on the role that remittances play, in the migration and development debates, especially in the south-south migration and south-south remittance sending. However, there is a notable primary focus/bias on cash remittances. Startlingly, rigorous research on in-kind transfers such as food remitting and its dynamics are under-researched. Thus, on one side, methodological and in-depth research on these discussions has focused predominantly on cash remittances. On the other, rigorous studies and scientific research on food remitting and its importance has been under-researched. Contemporary international overviews of remittances and their effect describe remittances as comprising of both money (cash) and goods (in-kind) transfers; however, the discussions overlook in-kind remittances in the evaluations and reactions to the issues related to remittances (Crush and Caesar, 2016).

The bias is a partial perspective, especially considering the consumption and developmental role that remittances in-kind like food play in the food security of many households and families in the place of origin, especially for poor communities. The over-emphasis and bias on cash remittances disregard that food transfers are integral to the food requirements, especially for poverty-stricken and food-insecure people in the global south. This regressive bias needs to be addressed, bearing in mind that human mobility is deeply embedded in sending cash and goods remitting, such as food. Crush and Caesar (2016) posit that to be solely attentive to utilising cash remittances for food access is to omit food remittances, a fundamental facet of the connection between international migration and food security. Correspondingly, this partiality of being solely attentive and giving more scrutiny to cash remittances conceals an in-depth and comprehensive grasp of food remittances' developmental and significant role in the global south. The position of this thesis is that paying attention to and taking into account the importance of in-kind transfers, especially food remittances, helps to comprehend a more far-reaching and in-depth conceptual understanding of remittances and their developmental role.

In addition, food remitting and remittance, in general, are complex occurrences involving social networks and migrant networks. Therefore, any robust platform that links migrant communities and their networks rapidly and cheaply through interaction, communication and information transmission is an important developmental tool. More importantly, social networks are imperative facets in the various stages of the migration process, including remittance sending. Crucially, social media [1]has been a valuable social network tool for communicating and sharing information among migrants (Dekker and Engbersen, 2014; Dekker et al., 2018). Also, food remitting is a complex phenomenon involving migrant social networks both at origin and destination places. Social media connects billions of people globally, including migrants, which may help them instantly connect and assist the remittance senders and beneficiaries in a multifaceted way.

In the present-day technological age, where mobile smartphones, mobile applications, wireless networks, digital transactions, and the internet are booming, social media platforms are surfacing and becoming an essential tool for migrant networks and their remitting behaviour. Similarly, Dekker and Engbersen (2014) posit that social media transform migrant networks and assist in migration. Social media expands migrant networks (Akakpo and Bokpin, 2021; Dekker et al., 2018). Furthermore, social media and remittances have been remarked to have a developmental role, yet they are primarily viewed as two detached concepts. The limited conception of not viewing social media and remittances as linked is puzzling because the migration process and outcomes like remittances are also deeply connected to the social networks or social ties between the places of origin and destination.

Similarly, Akanle, Fayehun and Oyelakin (2021) assert that less attention has been paid to ICT and social media in migration studies even though ICT and social media have immense influences on international migration decisions, networks and remittance sending. Also, social

[1] This study focuses on social media/social network sites like Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter and Instagram. The definitions and interpretations of social media are diverse and continue to evolve. However, the social media interpretation adapted in this study is based on Aichner et al (2021) who summarized the definitions of social media in the last three decades, as well as Aichner and Jacob (2015). They broadly describe social media as diverse online platforms, comprising of social networks (SN), video sharing, photo sharing, social gaming, social bookmarking, business networks, virtual worlds, collaborative projects, microblogs, blogs, products review, enterprise, forums, and SN (Aichner et al, 2021; Aichner and Jacob, 2015).

media is a robust social networking tool. Therefore, it is remarkable that there is a scarcity of research that connect social media and food remittances in the migration, remittances and development research or debates. Worth mentioning, McGregor and Siegel (2013) gave an overview of the academic connection between social media and migration. The links include the usage of social media to initiate and assist migration in both constructive (networks) and detrimental aspects (human trafficking); the part of social media and integration of migrants; the utilization of social media in engagements in the diaspora; and the utilization of social media in undertaking migration studies (McGregor and Siegel, 2013). Consequently, further research is necessary for enhanced comprehension of the social impacts of social media on migration (McGregor and Siegel, 2013).

Therefore it is correspondingly true for migration outcomes like remittances; thus, there is a need for more attention and research on social media and migrant remittances. Noteworthy, optimists' perspectives on social media and related issues like information communication technologies (ICTs) convincingly, rationally and practically view them as progressive or developmental in the context of socio-economic and political agendas. For example, ICT optimists regard contemporary technologies as predominantly advanced/developmental and can enhance income/capital generation and better service provision (May, Waema and Bjåstad, 2014). Social media play a development role as a social networking tool and for development communication on issues like community development, poverty alleviation, principled governance, environmental safeguarding, health care and socio-economic and cultural development (see Akashraj and Pushpa, 2014; Ojo, Janowski and Awotwi, 2013; Nicholson, Nugroho and Rangaswamy, 2016; Roy, 2015; Shang and Ghrig, 2018). Modern technologies afford the global community the communication and content broadcasting capabilities that did not exist or were not accessible in the past.

This chapter introduces an original investigative study focusing on the emerging role social media plays in cross-border food remitting and its underlying features in the setting of the embeddedness of Zimbabwean Migrants in Cape Town, South Africa, and their various networks. Therefore, the connection between food remittances and the concept of social media should be integrated into the migration, remittances and development debates, discussions, literature, and policy considerations. The section commences with the background and contextualization of the research. Then zoom into the statement of the problem, aim, specific

objectives, research question, rationale, justification and contribution of the study. At the end of this chapter are an outline, summary and the overall thesis structure.

1.2 Background of the study

At the core of the migration and development nexus is the phenomenon of remittances. Thus, the developmental role remittances play in the migration process is at the nucleus of the migration and development debates or contestations. Remittances are now part of the primary sources of income for many economies and households, especially in the developing world. The developmental aspect of remittances has been under scrutiny in the literature in the last few decades. For example, as noted earlier, macroeconomic views have a simplistic and superficial argument that remittances for social or household use are not economically productive. Conversely, microeconomic opinions crucially consider that remittances are fundamental for consumption and better livelihoods for communities in the developing world. In general terms, the definition of remittances entails money or goods transferred to family or household members back home from migrants staying in the places of destination (Adams & Cuecuecha, 2013). The above meaning of remittances comprises cash and goods, including food, transferred by migrants back to their origin areas. However, scholars (Crush and Caesar, 2016; Crush and Caesar, 2020) note that studies, research, and policies on remittances focus more on cash remitting.

The rise of the remittances rate is linked to the increase of migrants globally. Since the commencement of the 21st century, the rate of international migration has surged. In 2010 the number of international migrants was 214 million (UNDESA, 2011:12). The United Nations estimated that in 2017 the figure increased to 258 million (United Nations, 2017: 4). Some estimates by the World Bank noted there were approximately 266 million global migrants in 2018 (World Bank, 2019:9). Concerning this, the World Bank's Migration and Development Brief (2019:1) indicated that remittances flow to low and middle-income countries had a significant increase; in 2017, the increase was 8.8% and was 9.6% in 2018 to get to the highest number ever, $529 billion. Money sent to Sub-Saharan Africa maintained its upward increase; in 2018, it was projected to increase by 9.6%, rising from $42 billion in 2017 to $46 billion in 2018 (World Bank, 2019: 23). If unofficial figures like remittances transmitted via informal channels are to be added, the figures are significantly high.

However, noteworthy, as indicated by scholars, is the abundance of literature on cash remittances and the scarcity of research on food remittances (Crush and Caesar, 2020; Crush and Caesar, 2018). Yet globally, there is an indication of internal and international food remittances, which tend to be bidirectional; unlike cash remittances, they mainly occur outside market channels (Crush and Caesar, 2016). Similar viewpoints are highlighted in a study by Apatinga, Asiedu and Obeng (2022), where they underscore that in-kind remittances such as food have received limited focus. Yet, they are progressively acknowledged as vital and need policy and research attention (Apatinga, Asiedu and Obeng, 2022). The insufficient focus on food transfers indicates a crucial but generally overlooked discrepancy in a mammoth body of literature that put cash remittances at the hub of remittances discussions. Yet, food remittances also play a significant role but are discussed peripherally. Food remittances play a substantial part in food security in rural, urban, local and international settings (see Apatinga, Asiedu and Obeng, 2022; Crush and Caesar, 2016; Crush and Caesar, 2018; Crush and Caesar, 2020). Hence this study addresses the non-cash remittances gap by focusing on food remittances relating to the international migration and development nexus. Therefore, remittances do not merely concern cash transfers but, equally important, the goods (especially food) transmission from the host to the home countries.

In recent times, the subject of food security is emerging in the narratives and discussions on the remittances, migration and development nexus, which have been for a long time seen as disconnected, especially considering that food insecurity and food shortages are drivers of migration and remitting (Crush, 2012; Crush & Tawodzera, 2016). Food insecurity problems, just like the migration challenges, are still part of the vital development and global agendas. The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World report (FAO et al., 2018:2) notes that in 2017 global statistics showed that undernourished people were estimated to be 821 million, which was 1 in 9. In 2017 child stunting affected 151 million children below 5 years old or 22%; 38 million overweight children below 5; adult obesity in 2016 affected 672 million or over 1 in 8 adults (FAO et al., 2018:13-16).

The 2018 Global Report on Food Crisis states that in 51 countries, approximately 124 million in 2017 were food insecure due to conflict, insecurity, climate problems and economic challenges (World Food Programme, 2019:2), showing that food insecurity is still a global challenge. In 2020, 928 million persons or nearly 12% of the worldwide inhabitants, were severely food insecure, 148 million more people than in 2019 (FAO et al., 2021:8). The drivers

of food insecurity included economic depressions or slowdowns, climate challenges, conflict and, in recent times, worsened by the COVID-19 pandemic (FAO et al., 2021). In the context of the above, many countries have used remittances as a safety net to reduce food insecurity and access other basic needs by either utilizing cash remittances for food access or consuming food remittances.

Notably, the issue of social networking has taken a central place in the remitting behaviour of migrants globally in both the areas of destination and origin, especially the remitting practice and other socio-economic and political issues, particularly amongst migrants from the same country. Migrants in a network usually make comparable choices, such as remittance sending in the context of the links in the land of origin, connections in the destination country, and relations with people from other countries who remit (Fenoll & Kuehn, 2018). Social networks may directly influence the characteristics of remittances through knowledge transmission and ideas on inexpensive and available channels of remittance transmissions (Fenoll & Kuehn, 2018). Living in the same geographical location is key to networking; however, the emergence of social media in the 21st century has resulted in people networking virtually, exchanging information, and communicating quickly via instant contact.

Since the start of the 21st century, social media, digital platforms, cellphones or mobile devices have been at the centre of human interaction, integration, information seeking and sharing. Consequently, in the last decade, in the context of migration and related issues, an emerging and swiftly expanding body of literature investigated various aspects of how migrants, asylum seekers and refugees used social media and or other modern-day technological advancements (Charmarkeh, 2013; Damian & Van Ingen, 2014; Dekker & Engbersen, 2014; Lášticová, 2014; Thulin & Vilhelmson, 2014; Aricat, 2015; Dekker, Engbersen & Faber, 2016; Plascencia, 2016; Righi, 2019; Zijlstra & Liempt, 2017; Dekker et al. 2018; Alencar, 2018; Borkert, Fisher & Yafi, 2018; Elsner, Narciso & Thijssen, 2018; Alencar, 2020). For example, the importance of the internet, cellphones, and social media in making migration decisions and linking or communicating in the place or destination and with people back in the areas of origin.

It is evident in the existing literature that social media and cellphone use amongst migrants are fundamental and have advanced the migration process through acquiring important information, networking, and communicating with various networks in the place of destination and place of origin. Along similar lines, an informative study by Bunmak (2012) on cell phone

networks and migrant networks of migrant workers in Malaysia indicated how the cellphone is vital for the movement of migrants. And more important is how the cellphone is significant in forming, linking, preserving social networks and maintaining constant communication amongst migrants and their ties irrespective of space, distance and borders (Bunmak, 2012). To this rationale, Wei and Gao (2017), in their article on social media, social integration and subjective well-being among new urban migrants in China, show a helpful dialogue on how migrants gradually rely on modern media. For example, the article highlights the importance of social media for newscasts, showbiz, communal communication, social assimilation and personal well-being (Wei and Gao, 2017).

As noted by Taktak & Demir (2017), contemporary social network inquiry can be traced back to the end of the 19th century in the works of one of the founding fathers of sociology Émile Durkheim and Ferdinand Tönnies; this laid the foundation for modern-day social network analysis. Also, Taktak & Demir (2017) indicate that in the 1990s, John Barnes carried out advanced systematic research on a particular group. For that reason, he is regarded as the founder of social network analysis; he described the social network in the 1950s as the structure of connections (Taktak & Demir, 2017). In the 1930s, the works of Jacob Moreno termed the emerging field 'sociometry', which included the graphical mapping of human beings' sentiments towards each other, and resulted in the exchange of information and ideas (Borgatti & Ofem, 2010). According to Borgatti & Ofem (2010), in the 1940s and 1950s, social network analysis emerged amongst social psychologists who utilized matrix algebra and graph models to conceptualize groupings and social connections. In the 1980s, in the social sciences, social network analysis became prominent (Borgatti & Ofem, 2010). Merchant (2012) describes the social network as a form of understanding social links and communication, and the metaphor 'network' imply association amongst specific points.

This research is founded and looked at through the lenses and context of social networking. The particular theory utilized in the study is the social capital theory. In examining the role of social media in food remitting, the social capital theory helps explain how food remitting migrants use social links in the various stages of sending food back to their places of origin. The social capital theory provides the logical base for the investigation in this study by prioritizing social networks as significant for food remitting. Social capital denotes the characteristics of a social body like networks, norms, and trust that enable the organization and collaboration for reciprocal benefits (Putnam, 1993; Putnam, 2000). Putnam's perspective is

that social capital can be an essential tool to aid the association and communal empathy for advancement in communities (see Putnam, 1993; Putnam, 2000). Accordingly, Putnam (1995) asserts that social capital entails the elements of social life like the customs, trust and networks that facilitate the communal activities and efficient cooperation of people in chasing mutual aims. Therefore, social networking, social ties, exchanging information, and sharing valuable information or ideas are central to social capital.

In general, migration studies have established how associations or links are essential in generating social capital, which helps get resources, helpful information, jobs, opportunity access and safe or cost-effective movement of migrants (Dinbabo and Badewa, 2020; Majee et al., 2019; Massey et al. 1993; Aguilera & Massey, 2003). The migrant networks can be considered a type of location-specific social capital humans use to access resources in another place (Massey et al. 1998 in De Haas, 2010). Niemandt (2013) argues that human mobility and migration are related to and mutually guided by globalization. In addition, the globe has witnessed the dawn of the "network society", notably because of the eruption of wireless interactions and mobile phones, with social media as the key player (Niemandt, 2013). De Haas (2010) argues that social capital is vital in influencing the driving force and capability for human mobility or migration above and beyond financial and human capital.

Scholarly studies have also interrogated and revealed the link between migrant social networks, social capital and remittances (Posas, 1999; Eckstein, 2010; Gentry & Mittelstaedt, 2010; Markley, 2011; Chort, Gubert & Senne, 2012; Boccagni & Decimo, 2013; Fransen, 2015). Also, social media can potentially develop social capital in migrant networks (Ihejirika and Krtalic, 2021; Merisalo and Jauhiainen, 2021). Social networking can be done online via social media platforms like Facebook, What's App, Twitter, Instagram, and Viber in the current technological age. In the context of this research, the social capital theory is used in the lens of the utilization of social media sites like Facebook, What's App, Twitter and Instagram. These platforms can be used to communicate issues related to migration and remittances. This is rooted in how social media networks are used for information sharing and as an opportunity to avoid the constraints associated with a lack of information on food remitting. In the setting of this study, the social capital theory is very much applicable as the theoretical framework.

1.2.1 The Zimbabwean Context

Post-independence Zimbabwe (1980 – 1990)

At the end of the last decade of the 20th century, remittance began to occupy a very notable role in the livelihoods of many Zimbabweans. To comprehend the nature of remitting and migration issues for Zimbabweans during times of crisis, a recap of related vital episodes in the nation's history is crucial. The rationale for the nature or characteristics of the remittances to Zimbabwe is deeply rooted in the country's social, economic, and political issues. More importantly, the nature of remittances to Zimbabwe was impacted by the escalation of emigration from Zimbabwe in the last three decades. Also, international migration's pull and push factors are related to economic issues (Dinbabo and Carciotto, 2015). The emigration and economic narratives before the remittances era in the country shaped the rise of sending money and goods, especially food, by migrants back to Zimbabwe. Worth mentioning that in post-independence Zimbabwe, from 1980, the country changed from a migrant-receiving to a migrant-sending country (Tevera and Zinyama, 2002; Bloch, 2006; Black et al., 2006). Crush and Tevera (2010) remark that the change of the country from breadbasket to basket-case of the region was prolonged and lasted more than two decades. Tracing back to the environment before the migration and remittances era, the first ten years of independence, Zimbabwe was characterized by bliss as the country's economy was thriving.

The decade (1980 to 1990) saw the economy of the country's growth rate stay in the region of 4% every year regardless of several severe drought occurrences (Potts and Mutambirwa, 1998: 56). In the context of emigration, whites left the country in the first half of the 1980s because of the uncertainties caused by the post-independence political climate and black rule. In this period, Tevera and Zinyama (2002: 9) indicate a net migration loss of more than 10 000 individuals annually, and in 1981 the net migration loss reached its highest, 20 536 emigrated and 7 794 immigrated, resulting in a net loss of 12,742. Political violence also erupted in the 1980s; by 1987, a reported 20 000 individuals from the Ndebele ethnic group had been massacred in the so-called 'Gukurahundi' by the ruling regime, which comprised mainly Shona people (Ndlovu, 2017). Accordingly, this increased the number of blacks who left the country to seek protection elsewhere.

The roots of economic collapse (1991 - 2000)

The economic state of affairs in the country at the beginning of the 1990s is the origin of the existing nature of the migration of Zimbabweans to South Africa (Crush, Chikanda, and

Tawodzera, 2015). Accordingly, the economic setting in the 1990s was equally responsible for the remitting phenomenon, which started a decade later by many Zimbabweans abroad. In 1991 the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) was ushered in by the IMF and World Bank in the country and other African states. It involved cutting back on public spending by stripping off subsidies, scaling back the public service, lessening the budget share, and establishing user fees for vital social services like education and health divisions (Potts and Mutambirwa, 1998; Crush, Chikanda, and Tawodzera, 2015). The following year, from 1992 to 1993, a drought occurred in the region, and 20 million persons were affected; however, a calamitous crisis was prevented in the country (Chattopadhyay, 2000: 309).

Nevertheless, the outcome of ESAP, which started in 1991, was devastating. Crush, Chikanda, and Tawodzera (2015:367) remark that the intensity of competition from imports resulted in the de-industrialization and extensive loss of employment in the manufacturing division; from 1991 to 1997, in the public service, more than 20,000 workers lost employment. Additionally, they state that in the same period, more than 50,000 people in the labour force lost their jobs in the private sector with authorization from the government; various organizations also dismissed workers without informing the government. They also noted that it led to economic hardships. The Zimbabweans started migrating to South Africa in large volumes, which led to overstated statements that South Africa was being "swamped" by Zimbabweans (Crush, Chikanda, and Tawodzera, 2015:369). Mukwedeya (2011) utters that before the mid-1990s, remittances were not significant in the country's affairs. The economic disaster caused by the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) led to the fixed upturn of migration of Zimbabweans looking for better livelihoods elsewhere (Mukwedeya, 2011). Further damage to the economy in the late 1990s led to more Zimbabweans fleeing the country. And in the later years, they became remittance senders to help household members left behind.

The first such harm to the economy was the overspending of the state reserves through the government's decision in 1997 to compensate roughly 60 000 freedom war veterans, a total amount equivalent to 3% of the country's GDP, for the 1998 participation in the Second Congo War (Federal Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2011: 5). Ikubolajeh Logan and Tevera (2001:113) revealed a sum of Z$50 000 per head and a lifetime pension of Z$2 000 every month, and other benefits were provisioned as compensation. The above had a big knock on the country's economy, which had begun a downward spiral since the early 1990s and resulted in more people leaving Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe's Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP),

introduced in 2000, sowed the seeds and sealed the fate of Zimbabwe's economic ruin and increased migration. Roughly 4500 white farmers and their labour force were involuntarily removed from their farms (Muzurura, 2017: 11197). Moyo (2011) comments that the regressive nature of this operation was that many upper-middle and elite class recipients of the land wanted more land. Scoones et al. (2011), although they are contrary to the view, mention that the outcome of the land reform led to the interpretation that it led to the disintegration of the agricultural sector, widespread food insecurity, loss of jobs, deterioration of rural economies and land repossessed by political elites.

Tawodzera, Riley and Crush (2016) also commended that the Fast Track Land Reform Programme lessoned agricultural production because those who occupied the land were deficient in economic muscles, inputs, workforce, apparatus and skills to yield at the same level as those who were chased away. Private sponsorship from institutions opposed to the Fast Track Land Reform Programme was also revoked; the private funds came from the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the United Kingdom and the United States (Mazwi et al., 2019). Implementing the land reform programme in the country resulted in a permanent fracture to the crippling economy, the productivity levels in the agricultural sector decreased, and food insecurity became a significant challenge since then.

The emigration of Zimbabweans was mainly characterized by people fleeing economic hardships. However, many Zimbabweans have also left the country because of political persecution and human rights abuses (Raftopoulos & Mlambo, 2008). This has been evident since 1999, when the opposition party, Movement for Democratic Change (MDC), was formed by mainly workers and students discontent with the ruling Zanu PF's mismanagement of the economy (Alexander, 2000; Raftopoulos & Mlambo, 2008). Shonhe (2019) and Zengeni (2020) argue that the events in the late 1990s mentioned above stimulated bitterness that sparked an enormous pro-democratic movement, opposition in the country and the attention of negative worldwide coverage.

Deepening of the economic crisis (2000 – present-day Zimbabwe)

The deepening of the economic crisis in Zimbabwe and the out-migration in large volumes steered Tawodzera and Themane (2019), to quote the title of the book by Crush and Tevera (2010), "Zimbabwe's Exodus: Crisis, Migration, Survival", and liken it to the biblical exodus and mobility of Israelites from Egypt. Part of the story on Zimbabwe's crisis, migration and

survival have centred on how a lot of households rely on remittances for survival. However, Tevera and Chikanda (2009) point out that detailed data on this was unobtainable or unreachable in the face of the evident enormous scale of remittances flow in the early 2000s. They note that in trying to tackle the scarcities of the data, The Southern African Migration Programme (SAMP) formulated the household-level Migration and Remittances Survey (MARS) conducted in the region and put it into motion in Zimbabwe at the end of 2004 and commencement of 2005.

The data revealed that indeed remittances flow to Zimbabwe was manifesting, and each time there were scarcities of essential goods, remittances in kind increased, especially food remitting. The remitting behaviour of Zimbabweans was linked to the economic watershed and the high numbers of Zimbabweans who migrated. Approximately 500 000 Zimbabweans legally migrated to South Africa in 2000; by 2008, the number increased to 1.25 million, mainly because of the economic hardships in the first decade of the 21st century in Zimbabwe (Crush and Tevera, 2010:4). One of the preferred destinations for Zimbabweans is South Africa (Crush and Tevera, 2010). Accordingly, Dinbabo and Nyasulu (2015: 44) noted that South Africa is a preferred destination for many global migrants because of pull elements like the 'higher standard of living, lower cost of a living, stable economy, attractive investment climate and better state funding of social services such as health and education'. In 2005, Zimbabwe's national executive unveiled 'Operation Murambatsvina' meaning 'a clearing out of rubbish' or 'urban renewal', a state-run operation to suppress sovereign economic and political action in the nation's urban areas (Bratton & Masunungure, 2007; Bourne, 2011).

As stated by Potts (2006: 265), roughly 570,000 urban dwellers lost their accommodation structures and about 98,000 their informal sector livelihoods; other estimates show that possibly 650,000–700,000 individuals in the above two groups were impacted directly, and 1.7 million indirectly, for example by economic effects, that is overall of 2.4 million or 20% of the total population affected. According to Tawodzera, Riley and Crush (2016), to address the ills of Operation Murambatsvina, the government unleashed 'Operation Garikayi' to build accommodation for those affected. Still, the task did not succeed because it lacked capacity and resources (Tawodzera, Riley and Crush, 2016). Benhura and Naidu (2019) point out that from the mid-2000s, the government also implemented 'Operation Chikorokoza Chapera', which meant 'No More Illegal Mining'; illegal miners were harassed, tortured or arrested.

Resulting in thousands of displacements. The above episodes played a role in the further decay of the economy resulting in more Zimbabweans seeking greener pastures elsewhere.

In connection to international remittances, an estimated US$1.3 billion was sent back to Zimbabwe in 2004 via formal and informal passages (Orozco & Lindley, 2007 in Zhou, Pindiriri & Tambama, 2013: 33). The above shows the growing importance of remittances in the survival of many Zimbabweans. In the mid-2000s, the country's economy had shrunk by 40% in 5 years, the unemployment rate was around 70%, and hyperinflation had started (Bratton & Masunungure, 2007: 23). Since 2001, inflation rates stood at over 100% every year, beginning in 2006, it increased to more than 1500%, by 2008 the hyperinflation monthly was a record 80 billion per cent (McIndoe-Calder, 2018: 1659). As the economic meltdown unfolded, the number of Zimbabweans emigrating to South Africa increased. The annual movement of people between Zimbabwe and South Africa rose from below 200,000 in the mid-1980s to roughly 600,000 in 2004 and more than 1.6 million in 2010 (Crush and Tawodzera, 2016:4). In 2010, the World Bank estimated that roughly between US$360 and US$490 million was remitted back to Zimbabwe (Mishi, 2014: 960). Therefore, as the number of Zimbabweans leaving the country grew, remittances were also being sent home in enormous quantities.

Moreover, the country's economic collapse in the first decade of the 21st century was very evident. Mudzonga (2021) posits that dire economic circumstances in Zimbabwe have deeply added to irregular outmigration and brain drain, including public health. The health and education sectors also lost skilled labour, which migrated to other countries (see Abel, Mhaka & Le Roux, 2019; Witter et al., 2019). The absence of investment in health and prolonged lack of vital medicine and apparatus led to the almost disintegrating of the health sector in 2008 (Witter et al., 2019). Coincidentally, there was an outbreak of cholera in the country from 2008 to 2009; it was calamitous; an estimated 100 000 cases and almost 5000 fatalities were reported (Chigudu, 2019: 413). With the emigration of skilled personnel and the crippling of the health sector, cholera was difficult to contain. In the last two decades, Zimbabwean's health sector has been disintegrating. Thus, remittances may likely be essential to many Zimbabweans to provide the income necessary for accessing health services.

The adverse effects of the crisis in Zimbabwe, which started in the 1990s, are well illustrated by Tawodzera, Riley and Crush (2016: 1), who indicate that life expectancy, which was 61 years in 1990, by 2008 had dropped to 36 years. In 2008, accretion of unsuccessful economic

policies and political ferocity added to a decrease in food production and a pause in imports, which generated a humanitarian crisis that impacted millions of family units in Zimbabwe (Tawodzera, Riley and Crush, 2016). Accordingly, in 2008, Zimbabwe received USD490 million in humanitarian aid, whereas its foreign currency reserves were merely USD6 million (Tawodzera, Riley and Crush, 2016:1). Crush and Caesar (2016) give essential insights on the crucial role that remittances, cash and foodstuffs, played in the upkeep of many households in 2008. In the same year, the unemployment rate in the formal sector was over 80%, and hyperinflation had crushed the local currency (Crush and Caesar, 2016: 21). In the Zimbabwean context, remittances are crucial to access basic needs, including education, health care, shelter and food.

Between the Zanu Pf and MDC, the united government, from 2008 to 2013, decided to address the economic challenges, especially hyperinflation, by taking a different monetary route. In 2009, the dollarization of the monetary system was introduced (Mpofu, 2015). Later, this included a monetary system with other currencies in place; however, this did not add value to the economy's stability to some degree (Mpofu, 2015). At the end of the unity government in 2013, the crisis heightened because of poor political decisions that severely affected the economy. Programs that were centred on economic indigenization were put into practice. Central to this was the empowerment of the local population and equitable redistribution of resources. Thus 51% of foreign-owned businesses were to be given to locals (Chowa & Mukuvare, 2013; Muruviwa, Akpan & Nekhwevha, 2020). The indigenization policies pushed away investors; as Mpondi (2018) alludes that businesses seized to operate, unemployment increased, and looting/accumulation led to the economy's demise.

By 2017 the disaster was reminiscent of the 2008 dire levels, except that food was available. But people had no money to access it because of no access to a dependable income which resulted from unemployment and lack of consistent payment by the government and other organizations (Nyandoro & Hatti, 2019). Corruption has also been blamed for the ongoing crisis in Zimbabwe. Muzurura (2019) reveal that the country has been consistently ranked as one of the most corrupt locations in the region. An example of corruption in Zimbabwe was the looting of diamonds by the political elite when minerals were discovered in the Chiadzwa area (see Gukurume and Nhodo, 2020). On the contrary, the ruling ZANU PF has blamed sanctions imposed by the Western countries on Zimbabwe as the root of the economic collapse in the country (Chipanga & Mude, 2015). In the context of the crisis in the country, Mazhambe

(2017) argues that the cost of living is too high, and many people are jobless, with 90% employed informally (Oloruntoba, 2019: 9); informality has become a norm with most resorting to street vending.

The number of immigrations between Zimbabwe and South Africa has been exaggerated, speculated and contested. However, the projected number of annual entries was under 200,000 in the mid-1980s and exceeded 2 million in 2014 (Crush and Tawodzera, 2017:91). Unofficial estimates of the number of Zimbabwean immigrants in South Africa were deemed to be roughly 3 million (Johnston, Bernstein, de Villiers, 2008: 5). Furthermore, Makina (2013) notes that since 2000, there has been extraordinary human mobility from Zimbabwe to South Africa. Investigations have projected that by the close of 2007, between 1 million and 2 million Zimbabweans had migrated to South Africa due to economic and political disasters experienced in Zimbabwe (Makina, 2013:148). The high emigration rate in Zimbabwe has led to more people resorting to remitting to help family members back home.

The estimates in 2015 showed that money transferred from South Africa to the SADC countries was roughly US$1.2 billion annually, and Zimbabwe accounted for 60% of the remittances transmitted (Finmark Trust, 2015 In Chirwa & Kader, 2018: 77). Zimbabwe's extended political and economic crisis has resulted in mixed migration, where migrants from the country are from diverse backgrounds; this is a characteristic example of a crisis-driven movement of migrants (Crush and Tevera, 2010). Putting it into perspective, the high volume of Zimbabweans migrating to South Africa has increased the number of remittances transferred back home to lessen the difficulties caused by the economic collapse in the country. The migration experience from Zimbabwe to South Africa in connection to remittances and migration is multifaceted and vibrant. There are still significant research gaps in the literature on remittances, especially food remitting in the global south; this study provides an in-depth and methodological comprehension of these associated occurrences.

Remittances have occupied a significant role in the social and economic sectors of countries in the global south. In Africa and Zimbabwe, remittances are predominantly productive and vital in poverty reduction and access to basic needs. A wealth of empirical research has shown that remittances play an essential role in the survival of many families or households in Zimbabwe by providing money and goods for daily consumption, alleviating poverty and accessing basic needs like food, health and education (see Bloch, 2006; Pendleton et al., 2007; Maphosa, 2007;

Campbell & Crush, 2012; Makina, 2013; Mishi, 2014; Zhou, Pindiriri & Tambama, 2013; Moyo & Nicolau, 2016; Sithole & Dinbabo, 2016; Nzima, 2017; Chikanda, 2019; Maviza et al. 2019; Muyambo & Ranga, 2019; Madimu, 2020). It is also evident that Zimbabwe's economic and political crisis results in a scarcity of basic needs. And when there is a shortage of resources, in-kind remittances like food rise (Tevera & Chikanda, 2009). With the increase of Zimbabwean migrants since 2000, the remittances in cash and in-kind, including foodstuffs transferred back to Zimbabwe, have also risen because of economic ruin and political instability. And the remittances are essential for household food consumption, health access, and poverty reduction.

A study has shown that the remittances transmitted to Zimbabwe mitigate the challenging situations faced by households caused by the economic disaster in the country (Nyikahadzoi et al., 2019). Without remittances, countless Zimbabwe homes would face terrible circumstances (Tevera & Chikanda, 2009; Crush & Tevera, 2010). And households that receive remittances seem to have a better buying muscle than those that do not (Nzima, Duma & Moyo, 2016). Zimbabweans abroad have used formal and informal networks to remit cash and goods. A classic example of an informal food and goods remitting network from South Africa to Zimbabwe is the 'Malayitsha' or 'omalayisha' system, where those in the transport business are used to transfer the cash, food and goods informally (Nyamunda, 2014; Chikanda & Tawodzera, 2017; Nzima, 2017; Thebe & Mutyatyu, 2017). One key issue reflected in these studies is social networking, and social embeddedness is essential in getting links, referrals or connections to access or use the 'omalayisha' system.

The emigration population from Zimbabwe to South Africa since 2000 includes distressed food insecure people running away from the crumbling economy (Crush, 2012). In the past two decades, the number of remittances, both in cash and kind, has increased because of mass migration from Zimbabwe to South Africa. Since the start of the 21st millennium, Zimbabwe has become more and more of an out-migration nation because of the economic and political collapse in the country (Crush and Tevera, 2010). South Africa has become the leading destination for Zimbabweans (Crush and Tevera, 2010), with many seeing it as their second home. Many Zimbabwean households with family or relatives abroad heavily rely on money and goods, mainly foodstuffs, transferred to them (Crush and Tevera, 2010). In addition, Makina (2013) asserts that migration has afforded Zimbabwe a prospect to gain from remittances transferred by migrants. Remittances transmitted to the areas of origin by

Zimbabweans outside the country have presented a safety net supporting the livelihoods of relatives and families back home (Makina, 2013). Accordingly, remittances have mitigated the adverse effects on Zimbabweans, especially in times of economic shocks or crisis.

1.3 Statement of the problem, aim, specific objectives, research question; rationale, justification and contribution of the study

1.3.1 Statement of the problem

There has been a substantial focus and debates on remittances and their developmental capabilities (see Taylor & Wyatt, 1996; Adams & Page, 2005; Kapur, 2005; Maimbo & Ratha, 2005; De Haas, 2006; Pendleton et al., 2007; Bakewell, 2008; Fajnzylber & Lopez, 2008; Skeldon, 2008; Wise & Covarrubias, 2009; Brønden, 2012; Crush, 2012; De Haas, 2012; Ozaki, 2012; Moyo & Nicolau, 2016). Also, there is the argument that remittances are vital for economic utilization at the macro level and disregard remittances utilized at the micro-level (De Haas, 2005; De Haas, 2010). This study argues that the view that remittances for economic growth are more critical than remittances for household consumption is baseless and misleading. Remittances used at the micro level for social or livelihood consumption are essential. Therefore, cash and in-kind remittances (including food) play a developmental role in providing resources for household consumption and access to basic needs, especially in the global south. Notably, the literature on remittances has paid more attention to cash remittances, resulting in food remittances being a neglected area of research. Crush and Caesar (2016) remind us that food remittances are disregarded in remittances discussions and that the phenomenon of food remittances must be systematically addressed.

Scholars posit that the dialogue on food remittances has been under-researched (Crush and Caesar, 2016; Crush and Caesar, 2018; Crush and Caesar, 2020). Therefore, studies have partially included food remitting in their methodological, in-depth and rigorous cash remitting discussions. In addition, evident in the literature is the role of social networking in the migration and or remitting process (Posas, 1999; Eckstein, 2010; Gentry & Mittelstaedt, 2010; Markley, 2011; Mazzucato, 2011; Chort, Gubert & Senne, 2012; Scheffran, Marmer & Sow, 2012; Boccagni & Decimo, 2013; Fransen, 2015; Lawack, 2021). Dekker and Engbersen (2014) postulate that social media transform migrant networks and help the migration practice. Akanle, Fayehun and Oyelakin (2021) argue that limited focus has been given to ICT and social media in migration research. Yet, ICT and social media have an enormous impact on

international migration choices, networks and remittance transfers (Akanle, Fayehun and Oyelakin, 2021).

The above research gaps triggered the researcher to investigate social media and cross-border food remittance synergies. This research comprehensively examines food remitting across borders using a mixed methods approach (quantitative and qualitative). In the remittances and social networking debates, there is limited attention on the rise and role of social media in the remitting phenomenon. Also, in the literature, there is an absence of in-depth research that shows scientific analysis on the connection between food remitting and social media, its various forms, and complexities in the global south. This study provides the fundamental foundation that enriches how social media platforms transform food remittance practices for migrants and their networks. The research's purpose is to add to the research on migration, remittances and development issues by exploring the role of social media in food remitting by Zimbabweans in Cape Town, South Africa.

1.3.2 Aim

This study examines the role of social media in the food remitting terrain of Zimbabwean migrants in Cape Town, South Africa.

1.3.3 Specific objectives

- To analyse the causal effects of social media on Zimbabweans' food remitting motivations.
- To examine the role of social media in the choice of the channels used by Zimbabweans to send food back home.
- To assess the effects of social media on the nature, trends and patterns of food remitting by Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa.
- To establish the challenges Zimbabweans encounter when sending food back home and explore how social media help to address this.
- To evaluate the role of the family or household members in the food remitting process in the context of social media use.

1.3.4 Research questions

- What is the influence of social media on the decisions to transfer food remittances to the country of origin?
- How has social media impacted the decision to use specific food remitting channels, and why utilise the particular channels?

- What are Zimbabweans' food remitting trends, and how has social media impacted them?
- What are the problems faced when food remitting, and how has social media addressed these challenges?
- What is the role of family members or household members in the food remitting process in the context of their social media activities?

1.3.5 Rationale and justification of the study

The link between cash remittances, migration and development, has been determined in the literature (Acosta et al., 2008: Serino & Kim, 2011; Crush, 2012). The research gap on food remitting and the need for in-depth and scientific studies on food remittances have also been established (Crush and Caesar, 2016; Crush and Caesar, 2018; Crush and Caesar, 2020). Scholarly work has also shown the use of social media and smartphones by migrants or social networks for migration and/or remittances (see Eckstein, 2010; Gentry & Mittelstaedt, 2010; Chort, Gubert & Senne, 2012; Dekker & Engbersen, 2014; Thulin, E., & Vilhelmson, 2014; Aricat, 2015; Fransen, 2015; Bunmak, 2012; Wei and Gao, 2017; Zijlstra & Liempt, 2017; Dekker et al., 2018; Elsner, Narciso & Thijssen, 2018). McGregor and Siegel (2013) posit that social media influences migration decisions, integrations and engagements; thus, they call for further research on the social impacts of social media on migration.

Therefore, there is also a need to initiate research on social media and migration outcomes such as remittances. Against this backdrop, the rationale and justification of this research are threefold. To begin with, the significance of this study is a comprehensive exploration of the food remitting phenomenon. Second, the study examines the nexus between cross-border food remittances and social media in the global South, which has been barely investigated in the literature. Therefore, the study analyzes social media's role in the food remitting process in the cross-border or international context, which is under-researched. Third, it makes available the data, which is currently scarce, on the importance of social media to the complex food remitting phenomenon.

1.3.6 Contribution of the study

Food remittances are crucial for the food and nutrition security of many households in the global South. The study focused on the evolving role of social media in facilitating the transfer of cross-border food remittances in the context of Zimbabwean Migrants living in Cape Town, South Africa. This thesis made numerous contributions. First, this study addressed the research gap on non-cash transfers such as food remittances, an under-researched area of study in the literature, as noted by Crush and Caesar (2016, 2018 and 2020) and more recently by Apatinga, Asiedu and Obeng (2022). Second and of immense significance, the contribution made by this

study was to examine the largely unexplored link between social media and food remittances. This study illustrated the complex and indirect connection between social media, migrant networks and food remittances.

According to Dekker and Engbersen (2014), social media transform migrant networks. Akanle, Fayehun, and Oyelakin (2021) argue that, in Sub-Saharan Africa, there is an understudy of research on the functions of information communication technology (ICT) and social media in the links among international migration, remittances and associations. Third, the thesis revealed the significance of the utilization of digital or mobile technologies in transmitting food. In the literature on remittances, goods or in-kind remittances such as food items are primarily transferred through informal channels. Striking was the uncovered utilization of digital transactions or mobile technologies to transmit food items because they are reliable, accessible, user-friendly and speedy. However, the study underscored that informal channels like transport carriers, personally, friends, associates, relatives or family/household members are chosen because they are cheap, accessible and dependable.

1.4 Thesis structure

Chapter 1: The first chapter focuses on the study's introduction and background. This comprises remittances and social media in general, food remittances and migration-development nexus, social media/ICT and development, and remittances and social networks. Also, it includes the problem statement, rationale and significance of the study, and the aims and objectives of the research. The chapter provides the research context as well (Zimbabwean Context).

Chapter 2: The second chapter is attentive to the research study area. This includes the city of Cape Town in general and the specific neighbourhoods in the Northern and Southern suburbs of Cape Town. The chapter discusses geographical setting, history, economic drivers, population, urbanization and migration.

Chapter 3: The third chapter focus on the literature and overview of the concept of remittances. First, it introduces the concept of remittances and their definitions. And then pays attention to the types of remittances: cash remittances, in-kind remittances (which include food), social remittances and political remittances. Reverse remittances are also reviewed in the section. The chapter then shifts to the channels and motivations of the transmission of remittances. Next, the section discusses the debates on remittances and development. Furthermore, the section discusses global trends in remittance and empirical studies on cash remittances and food remittances at the continental, regional and local levels. Lastly, the chapter focuses on the knowledge gap in the remittance literature.

Chapter 4: The fourth chapter is attentive to the concept of social media. To begin with, the chapter reviews the origins and expansion of social media. Then, the section discusses social media user statistics, definitions and functions. Next, the section is focused on the types of social media. Afterwards, the chapter debates the association between social media and development. Lastly, the chapter uncovers the social media critiques.

Chapter 5: The fifth chapter provides the theoretical framework, which is the social capital theory. This section's core is the social capital origins, definitions, perspectives, forms, and criticism. The chapter ends with uncovering the nexus between social capital, social media and remittances.

Chapter 6: The sixth chapter entails the research methodology of the study. First, the chapter provides the philosophical basis of the research. Second, the application of the mixed-method approach, which includes both qualitative and quantitative research methods, is shown. The chapter consists of the research design, methodology, data collection instruments, sampling techniques, data analysis, data presentation, ethics statement, reliability and validity, as well as the limitations of the study.

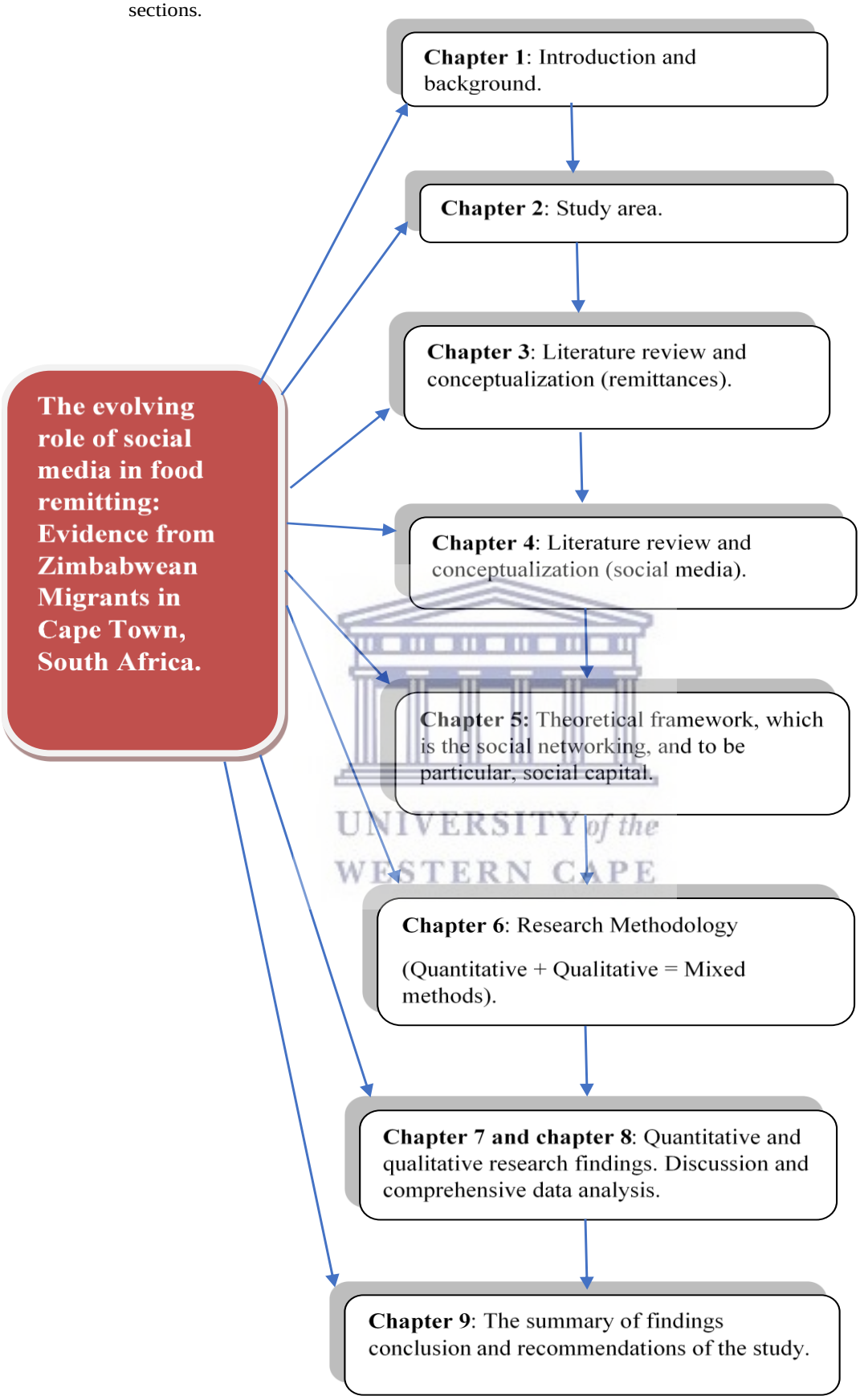
Chapter 7 and Chapter 8: Chapter seven represents the quantitative research findings, and the eighth chapter provides the qualitative study findings. The chapters include the discussions and comprehensive data analysis sections of the information gathered. The data shows the answers to the research aims, objectives and questions, and the study link to the conceptual and theoretical structures applied in the research.

Chapter 9: Chapter nine summarises the study's findings, conclusion and recommendations. Then the last section provides the references for the research.

1.5 Summary of the chapters

The chapter has presented the synopsis of the direction and intended attainment of the study (see figure 1). In this regard, this chapter began with the study's introduction, background and context. The chapter introduced the concepts of remittances and development, food remittances and their connection with migrant networks and social media. The Zimbabwean context was also presented, highlighting the link between migration, remittances and the country's social, economic and political setting. Additionally, in this section, there was a comprehensive description of the statement of the problem, aim, specific objectives, research question, research gaps, rationale and justification of the study. The section is wrapped up with a summary of the succeeding chapters and the general structure of the thesis. The next chapter focuses on the study area.

Figure 1: Thesis structure indicating the chronological connection between the sections.



CHAPTER 2: STUDY AREA

2.1 Introduction

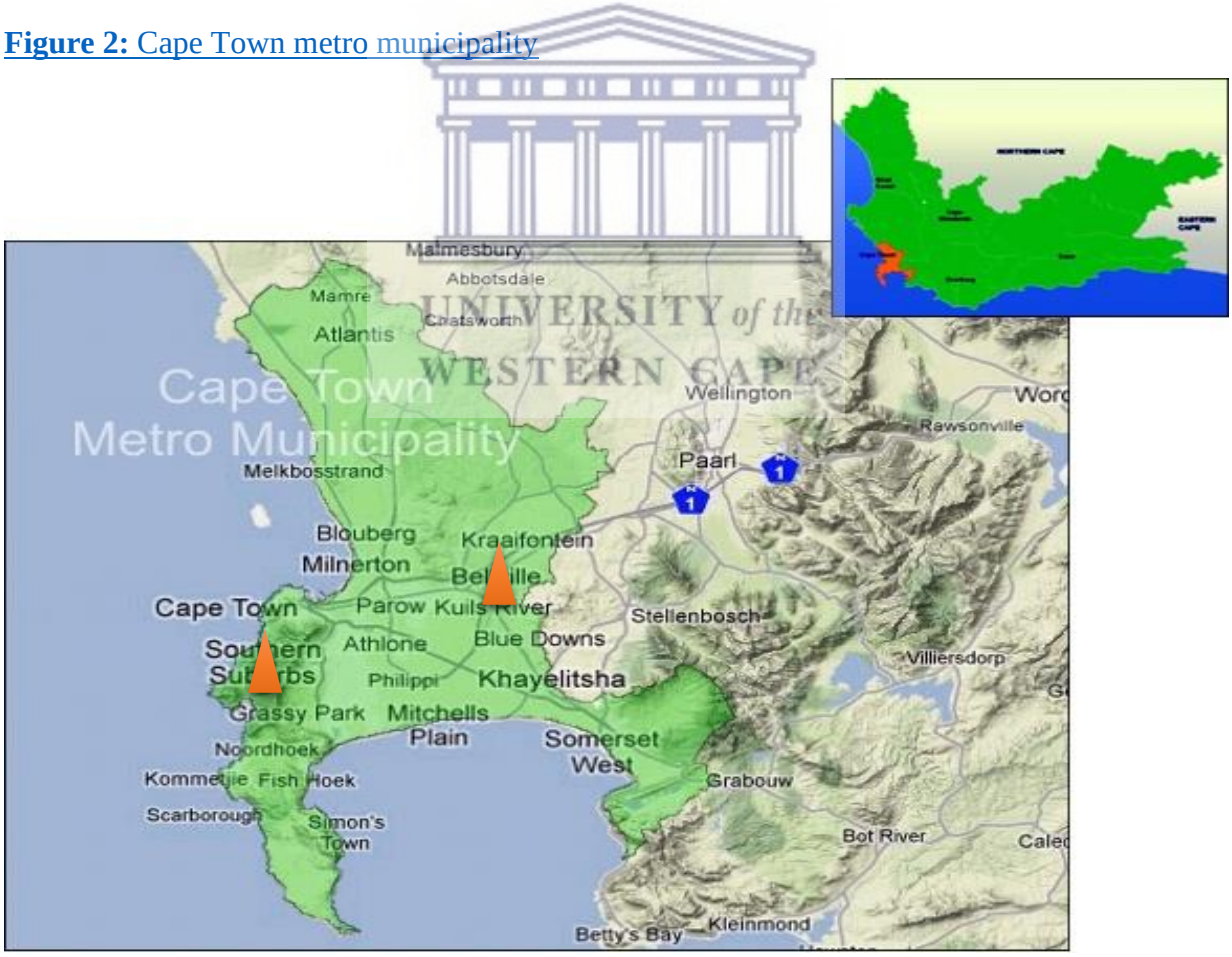
This chapter provides a synopsis of the study area. First, the chapter begins with the geographic background of the study area, particularly an outline of the city of Cape Town and indicates the specific neighbourhoods under study. The map of the study area is also inserted in the chapter. Secondly, the chapter will provide a brief history of Cape Town; it describes the settings in the city before and after the arrival of the Europeans and people from other regions and provides the town's political, economic and racial background. Thirdly, the section depicts a summary of the economic drivers of the city of Cape Town. Next, there is a discussion on the population and urbanization in the context of Cape Town. Then, the chapter focuses on international migration and Zimbabweans in the study area, Cape Town, South Africa. Lastly, the chapter presents the rationale behind choosing Cape Town and the specific neighbourhoods as the study area.

2.2 Geographic background of the study area (Cape Town)

The study area is Cape Town, in the Western Cape province of South Africa (Figure 2). Cape Town is located at 33.9249° S latitude and 18.4241° E longitude. In addition, the City of Cape Town is located in the southwestern-most segment of the Cape Floristic Region (CFR), the Western Cape Province and South Africa, and it covers 2460 km^2 (Rebelo et al., 2011: 22). Axelson (2020) notes that Cape Town is situated in the northern end of the Cape Peninsula or 50 kilometres, at its southernmost margin, north of the Cape of Good Hope; it is the capital of Western Cape province and the legislative capital of the country. In the context of this study, to be specific, the research data collection was conducted in Cape Town's Northern and Southern Suburbs. Cape Town is a sizable urban space with many inhabitants, the extreme mobility of humans, commodities and services, wide-ranging development and numerous commercial localities and industrial areas (Western cape Government, 2017). It is characterized by hubs of economic actions with multifaceted and varied economies (Western Cape Government, 2017). Additionally, it is a solitary location that incorporates development planning, and robust mutual supporting social and economic connections between its residents are anticipated (Western Cape Government, 2017).

The southern suburbs included in this study are Rondebosch, Claremont, Kenilworth, Wynberg, and Bellville, a northern suburb. The target population is Zimbabweans, migrant adults, and the study assumes that most Zimbabwean adults use social media regularly for their various day-to-day activities. The Southern suburbs selected are also residential or entertainment hotspots for the urban residents because of their variety of social places and spaces like restaurants, bars, shopping, malls and sports stadiums. Southern Suburbs, specifically Rondebosch, is located at the University of Cape Town (UCT). The Northern Suburbs, mainly Bellville, is where the University of the Western Cape (UWC) is situated. Both universities attract local and international students and staff. In the context of education, the 2016 Community Survey revealed that in Cape Town, 48 per cent of inhabitants had attained matric qualification, which was 10 per cent more than the provincial and national average, 6 per cent completed undergraduate level, and 5 per cent achieved a postgraduate qualification (Cogta, 2020). Lastly, 2 per cent of the populace were uneducated (Cogta, 2020). The above illustrates that the City of Cape Town has an educated population.

Figure 2: Cape Town metro municipality



Source: adapted from (Western cape Government, 2017).

2.3 Brief history of the study area (Cape Town)

The lineages of the contemporary Khoisan populaces resided in and around the Western Cape before the commencement of the Christian period, subsisting through gathering edible plants and roots, fishing and hunting (Cogta, 2020). The initial European to arrive in the Western Cape, specifically Table Bay, was Antonio de Saldanha; in 1503, he explored the monumental mountain and termed it 'Table Mountain' (Cogta, 2020; Raven-Hart 1967 in Axelson, 1977). Because it was the location of the initial European settlement in South Africa, Cape Town is acknowledged as South Africa's "mother city" (Axelson, 2020). After the arrival and supremacy of the Europeans, which displaced the indigenous populations, the dynamics in the Western Cape, particularly in Cape Town, changed. For example, conflicts with Europeans in 1713 and 1755 led to the overthrow of the San, who lost their trade stock and land (Cogta, 2020). Additionally, the San were annihilated by smallpox; they lost their uniqueness as a cultural community and intermarried with enslaved people and others to become the Cape Coloured community (Cogta, 2020). The city of Cape Town was founded in 1654 (Rebelo et al., 2011). Dooling (2004) gave a synopsis of the city of Cape Town. First, it originated in the mid-17th century as a Dutch East India Company resting location; Cape Town developed into a harbour city similar to numerous others initiated out of European imperialism (Dooling, 2004).

Second, Cape Town attracted northern Europeans of diverse backgrounds and appealed to other races like indigenous Khoisans, Africans, and Asians (Dooling, 2004). And that soldiers, sailors and enslaved people resided together; however, they were separated by race and class (Dooling, 2004). Third, the amalgamation of the Cape into the control of the British Empire after 1806 altered the locale (Malherbe, 2005); by the 1860s, Cape Town had changed into a 'colonial' city, steered by commerce and remodelled in the duplicate of a Victorian English merchant class who glanced to London for cultural advice (Dooling, 2004). And Cape Town had become a residence to some substantial African inhabitants (Dooling, 2004). Fourth, the 1950s was characterized by involuntary ejections as the ruling administration ceaselessly embarked on suburban discrimination; as a result, Cape Town became divided based on racial backgrounds (Dooling, 2004; Western, 2002). Additionally, whites were residing in the thriving areas near the city centre, and blacks in the desolate, uninhabited ghettoes of the Cape Flats, the resistance by the discriminated populations led to the end of apartheid in 1994 (Dooling, 2004).

Notably, in the 1960s and 1970s, District six in central Cape Town was ripped or destroyed by the apartheid government (Bickford-Smith, 2012; Cogta, 2020; Layne, 2008). District six was a diverse working-class location; specifically, an estimated 55 000 poor coloured persons were residents of the locale (Cogta 2020). District six was previously termed the sixth district in 1867 and was initially founded as a space for immigrants, labourers, artisans, merchants and formerly enslaved people (Cogta 2020). Additionally, the black community once stayed there but was unwillingly removed in 1901 (Cogta 2020). Moreover, another location worth mentioning is Robben Island, a tiny island situated a mere 7 kilometres from the coast of Cape Town; it was a prison that also housed political prisoners during apartheid; it is now a UNESCO World Heritage locale (Cogta, 2020). The above demonstrates South Africa, or Cape Town's history of divisions, struggles and tensions along racial lines. Contemporary Cape Town has social and development differences widespread in other urban spaces in South Africa resulting from the racially separatist and unequal past **(**Anderson and O'Farrell, 2012). Similarly, Miraftab (2012: 293) argues that the apartheid period ''…regulatory segregation was explicitly race-based and bureaucratized par excellence''. But, in recent times, there is evidence of improvements in the mixing of diverse races and backgrounds in the country's social, economic, and political settings and Cape Town in particular.

2.4 Economic drivers of the study area (Cape Town)

Studies and research have underscored the importance of Cape Town as one of the most economically vibrant cities in South Africa (Scholvin, 2020; Wilkinson, 2000). The Cogta (2020) report provided an outline below of the economic drivers of the city of Cape Town. First, it is the number three most significant influence on the national gross domestic product (GDP), which was 9.8 per cent of productivity in 2018 and provided 71 per cent of the Western Cape province's economic productivity (Cogta, 2020). Second, from 2014 to 2018, the city of Cape Town indicated a GDP expansion rate of 1.5 per cent, in contrast to 1.1 per cent at the country level; furthermore, in the same period, Cape Town's GDP per capita averaged 33 per cent better than that of the countrywide economy (Cogta, 2020).

Third, through the utilization of GDP-R (value) calculations, Cape Town's economic productivity in 2018 was mainly influenced by 35 per cent finance, 17 per cent community services, 16 per cent trade and 14 per cent manufacturing (Cogta, 2020). Lastly, vital economic

segments include the primary sector (agriculture and mining), secondary sector (construction, electricity and manufacturing), tertiary sector (community services, finance, transport and trade) and the informal sector (Cogta, 2020). Against this backdrop, it is evident that Cape Town is an economically vibrant city; this is likely to pull people, including migrants, into the town to seek employment and income-generating opportunities.

2.5 Population, urbanization and the study area (Cape Town, South Africa)

In regards to population, Cape Town is estimated to have nearly 4.4 million inhabitants, positioning it as the number two most populated city in the country after Johannesburg and the number two biggest economic hub (Cogta, 2020). In addition, 90 per cent of the inhabitants are of working age, and 48 per cent are in the 20 to 49 age category (Cogta, 2020). The city's median age is 29 years which is marginally more than the 28 years of the Western Cape, and 8 per cent of the inhabitants are aged more than 60 years, and 6 per cent are aged more than 65 years (Cogta, 2020). The fact that most of the inhabitants in Cape Town are of working age indicates that many of the population are economically active. The city, in 2019, had 50.4 per cent females and 49.6 per cent males (Cogta, 2020). High urbanisation rates in recent times have also contributed to the growth of the city's population. The global population is urbanizing rapidly. UN-Habitat (2020:11) indicated that in 2015, 4 billion people or 54 per cent of the overall international portion, lived in urban locales; in 2036, it is estimated that 5.4 billion people or 62 per cent of the global inhabitants, will be living in urban spaces.

In South Africa, 63 per cent reside in urban spaces; by 2030, 71 per cent will be inhabitants of urban locales, and by 2050, 8 in 10 persons will be living in urban settings (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2021). Approximately two-thirds of South Africa's inhabitants reside in urban spaces, positioning the republic among Africa's most urbanised locales (Bakker, Parsons and Rauch, 2020). Urbanization in South Africa is linked to the heritage of well-established or policy-backed racism and marginalization. Noteworthy is that before the end of apartheid in 1994, the governing rules and regulations tried to regulate the mobility of black Africans from rural to urban areas, but post-apartheid, more people had the liberty to relocate to urban spaces (Todes et al. 2010, Turok and Borel-Saladin, 2014). The 2016 Community Survey indicated that the total number of races in Cape Town comprised: 43 per cent black Africans, 40 per cent coloureds and 16 per cent white (Cogta, 2020).

In international migration, independent and economically active South Africa has attracted population movement from African countries, Asia and other regions who migrate because of social, economic and political reasons (Todes et al. 2010). Likewise, the urban population comprises international migrants seeking a better livelihood in urban spaces (Crush and Battersby, 2016). Both internal and international migrants are likely attracted to employment opportunities, income-generating activities, and schools and universities in urban settings. In the context of Cape Town, in addition to internal and international migrants, the city is also appealing to tourists because of spaces like Table Mountain, beaches, sea or ocean scenery, wine farms, local foods and local cultures. Cape Town is famous as the tourism centre of South Africa (Cogta, 2020). Similarly, Booyens and Rogerson (2015) posit that Cape Town is a lively locale with eye-catching natural and artificial settings that allure tourists.

2.6 International Migration: Zimbabweans in the study area (Cape Town, South Africa)

Worth mentioning that before 1994, a majority of international migrants to the Western Cape originated from the United Kingdom and Europe; however, in the last few decades, other migrants have entered South Africa from Zimbabwe, Somalia, Nigeria, DRC, Pakistan, India, China and Bangladesh (Rule, 2018). Notable, Zimbabwean migrants are located in many diverse locations in the Western Cape in general and Cape Town in particular. As noted in a study by Rule (2018), Zimbabweans are located in spaces like the inner city (CBD, Sea Point, Woodstock), the north-west coast (Milnerton, Table View), the Voortrekker Road area (Goodwood, Maitland, Parow, Bellville, Kraaifontein), the Cape Flats (Khayelitsha, Mitchell's Plain, Langa, Athlone, Delft, Gugulethu, Philippi) and the south peninsula (Hout Bay). Zimbabweans in South African cities like Cape Town are likely from diverse backgrounds. Correspondingly, Crush, Chikanda and Tawodzera (2015) assert that migration from Zimbabwe to South Africa since the 1990s has been mixed. The Zimbabwean migrants consist of people from different backgrounds, diverse professions, all age categories, genders, men, women, children, short-term and long-term stay, and some transfer remittances (Crush, Chikanda and Tawodzera, 2015). Also, Zimbabwean migrants are skilled and unskilled individuals; drivers of migration include social, economic and political aspects (Crush, Chikanda and Tawodzera, 2015).

From the start of the 21st century, the population movement from Zimbabwe to South Africa has been noted as the 'largest concentrated flow' in South Africa's history (Blaauw et al.,

2017). Zimbabwean migrants seem to view South Africa as the preferred and primary locale to be a destination place (Crush and Tevera, 2010). Additionally, Zimbabwe migrants are attracted to urban settings in South Africa like Cape Town because of economic reasons such as making a dependable income for their livelihoods and supporting family members or relatives back home. Consistent with this argument, Polzer (2008) posits that Zimbabweans mainly relocate to urban South Africa because of available networks and the inspiration to work for an income to send remittances back to the place of origin. Similarly, Hunter-Adams (2017) postulate that international migrants in Cape Town are primarily African and a section of the urban poor.

Migrants enter South Africa illicitly to sustain the demand for low-cost and cyclical noncontractual labour that undocumented migrants may provide in particular segments of the economy (Bloch, 2010). Moreover, because of being in South Africa unlawfully, most undocumented migrants are likely to be active in the informal economy for survival. Tawodzera et al. (2015) noted that the informal economy had rapidly expanded because of the inflow of foreign nationals in the city. The exact number of Zimbabweans based in Cape Town is unknown, especially considering the high number of undocumented migrants from Zimbabwe in South Africa. Polzer (2008) asserts that approximations of Zimbabweans who migrated to South Africa from the start of the 21st century are unknown mainly because of the undocumented migrants. Various sources indicate that South Africa has approximately one million to five million Zimbabweans living in the country (IOM, 2016; Polzer, 2008: 6).

However, because of the apparent millions of Zimbabweans in South Africa, some of them located in cities like Cape Town, numerous studies related to this research have interrogated various issues such as migration, remittances and food security in the study area, Cape Town. For example, Sithole and Dinbabo (2016) explored youth migration and the food security nexus of Zimbabweans in Cape Town. Noteworthy, Zimbabwean migrants transfer food remittances to support their families or household back home (Sithole and Dinbabo, 2016). In addition, their findings indicated that Zimbabweans migrate to South Africa because of food insecurity and social, economic and political reasons. The study by Sithole and Dinbabo (2016) also revealed that although the food-related issues in South Africa had improved, most of them were food insecure. Other studies in Cape Town and South Africa have also shown that Zimbabwean migrants transfer remittances to the place of origin to support their family or household units;

however, food insecurity is a severe challenge for them in the area of destination (Crush and Tawodzera, 2017; Crush and Tawodzera, 2016).

2.7 Chapter conclusion

In the context of the above discussions on the study area, Cape Town is one of the economically vibrant cities in South Africa that attract international migrants pursuing employment opportunities and economic activities. It can be noted that the rationale behind selecting Cape Town as the study area was the high number of economically active Zimbabwean populations in South African urban areas, including Cape Town. However, the exact number is not known. Against this backdrop, it was apparent that Cape Town would provide specific and valuable data linked to food remitting and social media networking amongst Zimbabweans. Additionally, considering that other studies on migration, urbanization, remittances, food security and development in the context of Zimbabweans in Cape Town have provided valuable findings, it was clear that the setting of the city of Cape Town was suitable for this study. The utilization of diverse neighbourhoods in Cape Town in the context of food remittances and social media helped gather comprehensive information on the experiences of Zimbabweans in the city. The next chapter pays particular attention to the concept, literature and debates on remittances.

CHAPTER 3: OVERVIEW OF REMITTANCES

"Studies of remitting practices and impacts often define remittances to include both cash and in-kind (goods) flows. But they invariably ignore the volume, value and impacts of international goods (including food) remitting". (Crush and Caesar, 2016:1).

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is centred on the academic narratives, conceptions, discussions and debates on remittances and related issues. The section begins by focusing on the definition and concept of remittances. Then pays attention to the types of remittances consisting of both remittances in cash and in-kind, including food remittances. Additionally, the section's emphasis is also on social and political remittances. Next, the chapter discusses the channels of transmitting formal and informal remittances. Furthermore, the section focuses on reverse remittances. Moreover, the chapter discusses the motivations for sending remittances. Also, the chapter appraises the connection between remittances and development. Then, the chapter pays attention to global remittances trends and empirical evidence on remittances in Africa. Lastly, the chapter is attentive to the literature's knowledge gap on food remittances and discussions on remittances.

3.2 The concept of Remittances

3.2.1 Remittances: definition and concept

Defining and conceptualizing remittances has faced many intricacies and complexity. As a result, a consensus on the definition and understanding of remittances has been contested for several decades. The above has led to problems in measuring and quantifying the number of remittances transferred from the destination to the origin places. The idiom 'remittance' originates from the phrase 'remit', which denotes 'to send back' (World Remit, 2020). The concept of remittances is epitomized by the transmission, transference, sending and channelling of resources from the host to the home locations. Alfieri, Havinga and Hvidsten (2006:2) reveal how the United Nations discussions define remittances as 'personal transfers, personal remittances and total remittances'. The basis of the suggested descriptions of remittances is that their calculation is developed on the Balance of Payments elements that are probably turned into an aspect of the regular demonstration, also taking into account the practical features of data gathering like the symmetry of reporting (Alfieri, Havinga and Hvidsten,

2006). Table 1 below illustrates the three pillars of defining remittances highlighted above, which are (1) personal transfers, (2) personal remittances (3) total remittances.

Table 1: Definitions related to remittances

Personal transfers	**Comments**
All current transfers in cash or in-kind made, or received, by resident households to or from other non-resident households	BOPCOM has agreed to replace "workers remittances" with personal transfers as part of the BOP standard presentation. The AEG questions whether capital transfers between households should be included in the definition of personal transfers.
Personal remittances	**Comments**
(Gross compensation of employees – social contributions) + personal transfers + capital transfers from household to household	All components are part of the standard presentation of the BOP. Personal remittances would be part of the BOP standard presentation. The disaggregation of capital transfers into capital transfers made/received by households is currently not part of the standard presentation.
(Gross compensation of employees – social contributions – taxes on income – travel – passengers transportation) + personal transfers + capital transfers to households	Taxes on income and travel and passengers transportation-related to short term employment are supplementary items. Considering the item as part of the standard the presentation will be an issue for discussion at the next BOPCOM.
Disposable income from abroad	**Comments**
Personal remittances + social benefits	Social benefits are part of the standard presentation. This concept follows from the discussions during the AEG meeting.
Total remittances	**Comments**
Personal remittances + social benefits + current transfers to NPISHs	BOPCOM has to deliberate whether current transfers to NPISHs would be considered as part of the BOP standard presentation or supplementary item. AEG questions whether capital transfers to NPISHs should be included in the definition

Alfieri, Havinga and Hvidsten (2006:7)

Maimbo and Ratha (2005), in their study on remittances, development impact and future prospects, described workers' remittances as the aggregate of two elements, that is the current transfers in the current account of the balance of payments; and payment of workers, which

consist of earnings, incomes, and added gains of the border, seasonal, and other non-resident employees. Along similar lines, Giuliano and Ruiz-Arranz (2009) note that the commonly used and all-inclusive definition of remittances has been the one related to the International Monetary Fund (IMF)'s Balance of Payment Statistics and is threefold: (1) workers' remittances (2) compensation of employees (3) migrant transfers. Kapur (2005) argues that the broad definition of remittances is problematic. For example, Kapur (2005) notes that the difference between individuals whose incomes are categorized as "compensation of employees" and migrants who have become inhabitants of economies because of being anticipated to stay there for a minimum of 12 months is complicated in practice. Since "compensation of employees" considers the offerings funded by workers, on behalf of employees, to social security arrangements or private insurance or pension funds, it overemphasizes the capital transmitted to the place of origin (Kapur, 2005).

Maimbo and Ratha (2005) noted that the drawback of the general definitions of remittances is that they lack the inclusion of transfers through informal ways, for example, given to friends or family associates or in-kind remittances. Likewise, Kapur (2005) posits that the broad description of remittances discounts unregulated and in-kind remittances, which are probably sizeable. And it also omits resources transmitted through the capital account by overseas inhabitants, like special savings accounts, which are therefore received in local cash (Kapur, 2005). Notably, the information on remittances transferred via informal channels or transmitted as in-kind is problematic to gather. However, flaws in data gathering can entail that voluminous formal transfers, particularly if small, are sometimes not captured or are misrepresented as tourism receipts or non-resident deposits (Acosta et al., 2006). Accordingly, if remittance statistics reported by development agencies, governments and researchers disregard in-kind remittances and/or transfers made via informal means, it can be concluded that in most cases, the remittance data is partial and of compromised eminence. The above is a concern considering that remittances in goods or transferred via informal means are essential for many families and households, especially in the global south and are likely to be substantial.

The above definitions and conceptualization of the term remittances have mainly focused on the monetary or financial aspect; this bias has led to the limited focus on the other crucial remittances category, in-kind remittances. Noteworthy is Adams' (1991) all-encompassing reference to remittances as the money and goods transferred back to the place of origin by workers who reside abroad. Similarly, Yang (2011) states that remittances can be transmitted

in cash or in-kind using many different formal or informal channels. Adams and Cuecuecha (2010) postulate that international remittances comprise both money and in-kind remittances. This thesis views the applicable definition of remittances as the money or goods transmitted back to the place of origin by migrants in the destination areas. In other words, the researcher's position is that remittances include both in-cash and in-kind, transmitted through both formal and informal channels. The definition utilized by this research affords the comprehension and valuing of the impact of goods, specifically food items, that are channelled by international migrants back to their home countries. Remittances play a significant role in improving the livelihoods of many households, especially in developing countries. In the context of this research, the attention is on in-kind remittances. To be specific, at the core of this thesis are food remittances.

3.2.2 Types of remittances

3.2.2.1 Cash remittances

Cash remittances refer to the money transmitted through financial or monetary transactions by the migrants to their families, relatives and household members in the place of origin (Hagen-Zanker and Himmelstine, 2016). That is to say, cash or money remittances are in currency form. The literature on remittances has mainly recognized money or cash as the primary form of remittances. Notably, the estimates on global remittances trends, figures and projections reported by developing agencies and the World Bank exclusively focus on cash remittances (see World Bank, 2020, World Bank, 2021b). However, the other form of remittances that are equally essential is in-kind remittances transferred in the form of goods and, more importantly, food remittances.

3.2.2.2 In-kind and food remittances

Crush and Caesar (2016) posit that literature on remittances defines remittances to comprise both cash and in-kind or goods. In-kind remittances consist of food and non-food goods (Adams and Cuecuecha, 2010). The goods classified in in-kind remittances include food items and goods like clothing, household equipment, machinery and technological devices or gadgets. Nevertheless, the body of knowledge on remittances generally overlooks the size, importance, and effects of goods and food remitted internationally (Crush and Caesar, 2016). Convincingly Pendleton et al. (2007) posit that international cash transfers are merely a portion of the narrative on remittances and that in-kind remittances are equally and enormously essential. Correspondingly, Tevera and Chikanda (2009) argue that although remittances are

commonly comprehended as comprising cash transmissions. In Southern Africa, it is vital to take into account goods procured and remitted back to the place of origin by migrants as a type of remittance (Tevera and Chikanda, 2009). This thesis is centred on examining the presence and importance of in-kind remittances in the form of food. Accordingly, it is clear that in-kind (goods) remittances, including food remittances, are receiving limited attention and are scarcely incorporated in the debates, discussions and research on remittances.

3.2.2.2.1 Food

An FAO (2004) publication describes what constitutes 'food'. First, the publication notes that a 'food' is an item that affords nutrients; and nutrients are items that offer: energy for movement, development, and all routines of the body like inhalation/exhalation, consuming/processing food, and staying warm; resources for the growing and healing of the body, and for maintaining the immune system healthy. Second, there are numerous/diverse nutrients that consist of (a) macronutrients, for example, carbohydrates (dietary fibre, sugars and starches), fats and proteins (b) Micronutrients such as zinc and iodine, minerals – iron, vitamins - vitamin A, B and C. Notably, FAO (2021) list some of the common food groups and subgroups that include: cereals and related foodstuffs; roots, tubers, plantains and related food items; pulses, seeds, nuts and related food items; milk and related food items; eggs and related foodstuffs; fish, shellfish and related food items; meat and related food items; insects, grubs and related foodstuffs; vegetables and related food items; fruits and related food items; fats and oils; sweets and sugars; spices and condiments; and beverages.

3.2.2.3 Social remittances and political remittances

Levitt (1998) formulated the concept of social remittances and defined them as the ideas, habits, practices, characteristics, and social capital that move from the communities in the destination areas to the place of origin. Social capital is generally understood, in another way, as a watchword for the grassroots "forms of cultural diffusion" empowered by trans-national migration practices (Boccagni and Decimo, 2013:1). Social remittance interactions transpire when migrants return to their place of origin for a short or long stay; when non-migrants visit those in the destination areas; or utilizing relations done through telephone, electronic messaging, blog posts, videos, tapes and letters (Levitt and Lamba-Nieves, 2011). Accordingly, social remittances reveal that the concept of remittances is beyond cash and goods transfers from the host to the home location. Furthermore, the migration practice includes the

transmission of thinking, manners, expertise, traits and social capital amongst individuals in origin and destination areas.

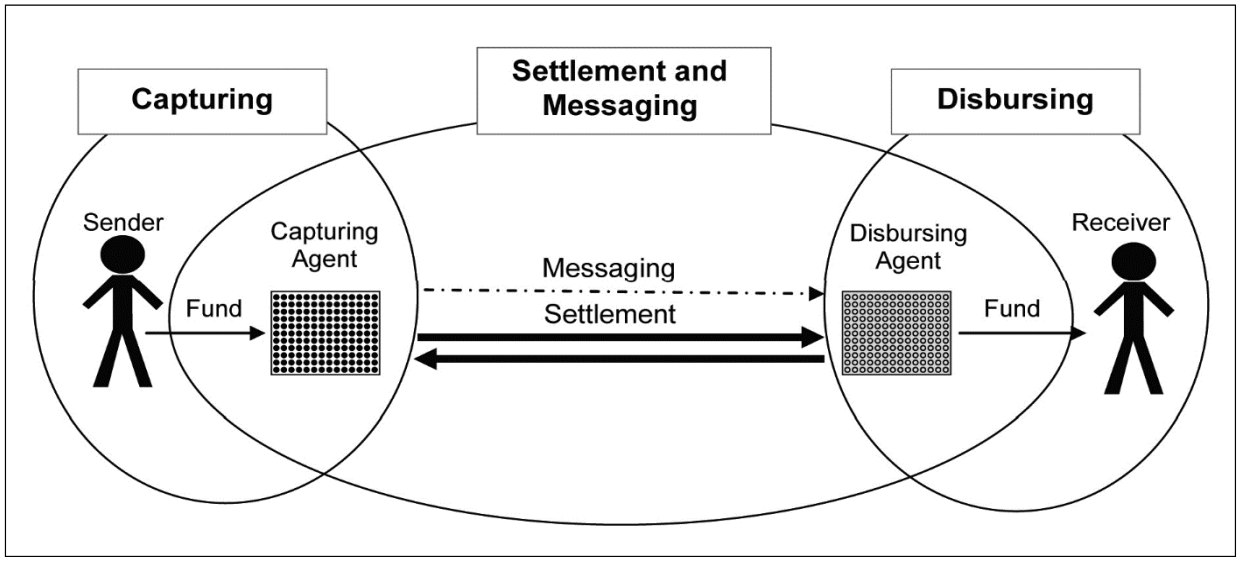
The notion of political remittances represents a sub-issue of the idea of social remittances (Piper, 2009). Political remittances are the action of transmitting political ideologies, political views, political language and political habits between two or more locations with which migrants and their relatives share a link (Krawatzek and Müller-Funk, 2020). Accordingly, political remittances entail sharing and transferring political doctrines, political jargon and political customs or political thinking between migrants and their networks. Krawatzek and Müller-Funk (2020) argue that political remittances should be considered as comprising multidirectional movements of political practices and ideas influenced by settings in sending and receiving locations.

3.3 Channels of remittances

3.3.1 Formal remitting channels

The channels and flow of remittances can be grouped into two classes, either formal or informal. Formal remittances channels consist mainly of bank transfers, post office banks, foreign exchange bureaus and money transfer operators (MTOs) like MoneyGram and Western Union (Brown et al., 2014; Freund and Spatafora, 2008; Maphosa, 2007; Seddon, 2004). In South Africa, formal remittances channels include Money Gram, FNB Money Transfer and Western Union, among others, and semiformal comprising 'Mukuru' and comparable channels guarantee that countries profit from the remittance process (Thebe and Mutyatyu, 2017). In the transference of remittances, Ozaki (2012) demonstrates that at least three parties are necessary to carry out a transaction: the sender in the place of destination, service providers for transmission and disbursing, then the recipient in the area of origin (Figure 3). On a broad spectrum, formal remittance channels are commonly listed on authoritative organizations, licensed, officiated, lawful, legal, regulated, administered and operated through banking structures.

Figure 3: General remittance transaction mechanism



Source: Asian Development Bank in Ozaki (2012:15)

3.3.1.1 Mobile/digital channels

In the last decade, the transfer of remittances through digital or mobile channels has materialized to afford opportunities for migrants to transmit remittances to their home countries (David, Dana and Abel, 2013; Guermond, 2022; and Kitimbo, 2021). Rotondi and Billari (2021) assert that mobile money, in remittances, reduces transaction charges, is quicker, more secure to transmit and makes it more straightforward and reasonably priced to collect the transfers. Siegel and Fransen (2013) argue that mobile remittances have prominent development potential as they offer accessible, user-friendly, speedy and inexpensive services. Therefore, mobile remittances can become an essential and revolutionary means for remittance transfers in Africa (Siegel and Fransen, 2013). The expansion of the channelling of remittances through mobile channels has been enhanced by the progression in wireless telecom services (Merritt, 2011); advancement in digital services (Emara and Zhang, 2021); mobile phones, mobile banking and mobile money (Alhassan, Guryanov and Kouadio, 2021; Richard, 2011).

For instance, Zimbabwean migrants use digital or mobile passages like Mukuru and EcoCash Diaspora to transfer remittances to the country of origin (see Gukurume and Mahiya, 2020; Mutsonziwa and Maposa, 2016). In Kenya and other African countries, the M-Pesa platform that provides mobile money transfers has also been vital in local remittance sending because of its accessibility and financial inclusion (Emara and Zhang, 2021; Onsongo, 2019). The above research on mobile or digital remittances enriches the comprehension of how mobile technologies have evolved to become important in channelling remittances, especially in the

global South. However, most previous studies on mobile or digital remittances are predominantly on cash transfers. Transferring goods such as food remittances through mobile or digital channels has been scarcely investigated. Thus, it is necessary to examine the developmental impact and significance of mobile technologies, digital platforms or mobile channels in transmitting goods like food remittances.

3.3.1.1.1 Malaicha food remitting service

Malaicha is a mobile platform utilized by migrants to transfer food items to their relatives and families in Zimbabwe and is mainly used by Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa (Techzim, 2019). The Malaicha app, through a smartphone, can be used to do transactions and get food items available to be collected in Zimbabwe in merely 24 hours (Techzim, 2019). Malaicha (2021) indicates that the process of remitting food items and other goods through Malaicha consists of (1) downloading the App on the Apple App Store and Google play store, (2) signing up or logging in, (3) doing the shopping that consists of more than 600 items (4) check out the preferred shopping options (5) make the payment via electronic fund transfer (EFT) through banks such as Nedbank, Standard Bank and First National Bank (FNB) or make a cash payment at retailers such as Pick and Pay, Checkers, Shoprite, Spar, PEP stores, Game, Makro, Ackermans and OK stores. The recipients in Zimbabwe get the details of the transactions and then collect the goods at various collection points in Zimbabwe (Malaicha, 2021). The benefits of mobile technologies or mobile applications to channel food are speedy, flexible, convenient and accessible.

3.3.1.1.2 Mukuru food remitting service

The Mukuru Groceries service entails a simple method for relatives, family or associates in Zimbabwe or Malawi to take delivery of vital goods and stationery from migrants in Botswana, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi and South Africa (Mukuru, 2021). In addition, Mukuru (2021) illustrates that through Mukuru Groceries, sending goods involves downloading the App on the Apple App Store and Google play store or doing it on the online website. Then sign up or log in, complete the online shopping, and then complete the transaction by paying for transactions at retails (Mukuru, 2021). Lastly, recipients in Zimbabwe use the transaction details to collect the groceries at specific outlets (Mukuru, 2021). Like the Malaicha application, the Mukuru mobile application to transmit food is efficient because it is accessible, swift and user-friendly.

3.3.2 Informal remitting channels

Informal channels are comprehended as remittances transmitted primarily outside the conventional banking system and money transfer businesses (Seddon, 2004). The Informal passages include informal couriers, hand-carries by contacts, relatives or family associates in cash or in-kind remittances of clothes, jewellery, and other consumer products (Brown et al., 2014; Maimbo and Ratha, 2005; Seddon, 2004). In general, informal remittance channels are usually unofficial, unregulated, unauthorized, unlicensed, unlawful, and not operated through the banking system. Classic examples of informal remitting channels are the "omalayitsha" and the "hawala" systems.

3.3.2.1 The omalayitsha system

An example of how informal systems significantly contribute to the channelling of remittances is the omalayitsha phenomenon used by Zimbabweans. The omalayitsha is a cross-border informal carriers network used to send remittances in cash and in-kind back to the place of origin by Zimbabweans in South Africa. The omalayitsha are informal cross-border couriers/transporters who help transfer money and goods back home from the destination areas to Zimbabwe from South Africa (Chikanda and Tawodzera, 2017; Nyamunda, 2014). The term 'malayitsha' is a SiNdebele/Ndebele word that is described as 'the one who carries a heavy load' or 'one who loads and carries goods' (Nyamunda, 2014:40; Nzima, 2017:307). Thebe and Mutyatyu (2017:7) posit that the word 'omalayisha' originated from the Zulu term 'ukulayisha', which generally means 'to transport'. However, it has been applied in diverse settings to denote different things, comprising the operator(s), the channel and the vehicle(s) (Thebe and Mutyatyu, 2017). The omalayitsha system shows how remittance discourse should not only be about cash remittances through its flexibility and easy access to send remittances both in cash and in-kind, including food remittances.

3.3.2.2 Hawala system

Another example of the informal transfer of remittances is the "hawala" system. "Hawala" means a method of cross-border financial processes, which function in parallel with, and independently of, the formal ways of transferring cash through banks and wire transfer amenities (Lascaux, 2015). Schaeffer (2008) notes that the Hawala system has been active since ancient eras; it materialized in the setting where formal administration of internal trades by leaders and ruling elites was not yet present. As global trade started to surface in South Asia in the 11th century, hawala systems became vital in enabling trading (Schaeffer, 2008). Numerous

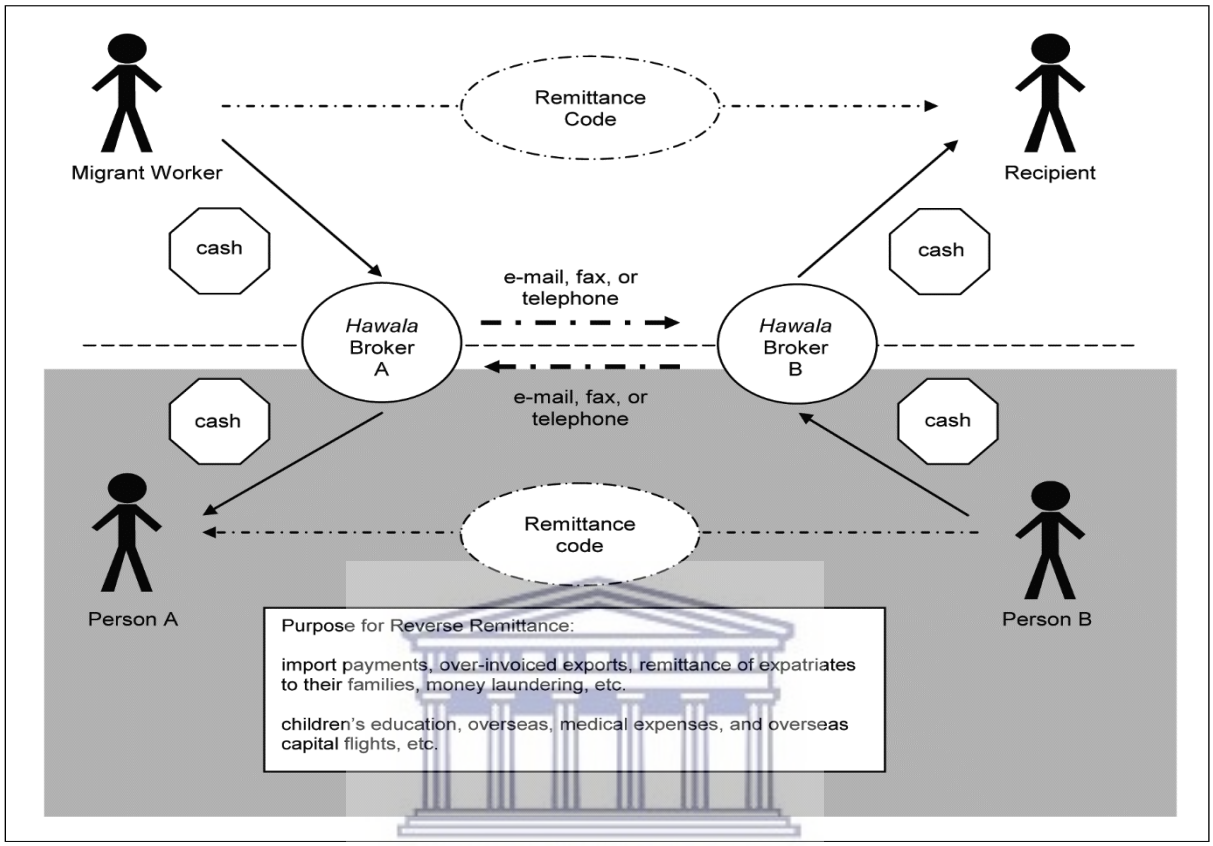
terms are employed to refer to informal remittance methods like hawala, that is, “informal value transfer systems,” “ethnic banking,” “underground banking,” and “alternative remittance systems” (Maimbo et al., 2005:43).

In some regions of the globe, expressions utilized are hawala (India and the Middle East), hundi (Pakistan, Bangladesh), padala (the Philippines), phei kwan (Thailand), fei-ch’ien (China), hui kuan (Hong Kong), mali a mbeleko (Zambia) and kyeyo money (Uganda) (Maimbo et al., 2005:43). Furthermore, the remitting process consists of the migrant who transfers the remittances, the informal middle individuals, and the receivers back in the place of origin. The informality and functioning structures of the several informal remitting methods that can be located globally are almost similar. For example, they do not use formal and regulated channels like banks. Formal or regulated channels are likely to be unpopular because they are regulated, registered, and expensive compared to informal channels (Nzima, 2017). In addition, Nzima (2017) asserts that because some formal channels require customers to show documents indicating sources of income and identification, formal channels are primarily accessible to documented migrants. Thus undocumented migrants have limited access to formal channels and preferably use informal channels where documents like Visas, identifications or proof of funds are not requested.

Lascaux (2015) argues that along with close community connections, kinship links, and ethnic cohesion, trust is assumed to be a significant operational structure affording the easy operation of hawala. Trust is important in the Hawala system because of its informality, unmonitored nature and, in some cases, untraceable movement of the remittances. Therefore, reliability and trustworthiness between the customers and service providers are essential. The hawala system differs from the formal cash remitting processes in various ways. In terms of the hawala system and its operation in general, the distinctive hawala functioning consists of the sender, the middle people called the (hawaladars) and then the receivers (Maimbo et al., 2005, Schaeffer, 2008). Ozaki (2012) illustrates that sending remittances or reverse remittances through the hawala system comprises the sender, hawala brokers responsible for transmitting the remittances and the recipient (Figure 4). Sending cash using the hawala system may be favoured because the method is low-cost and swift both in the sending and receiving process; unlike formal channels, the hawala can be accessed by communities in remote locations and avoids the disadvantages of regulated methods (Schaeffer, 2008). In other words, the rapidity, proficiency, and wide accessibility are prerequisite conditions in the remitting process that can

be ideal for migrants in the place of destination and their families, relatives, and household members back home who receive the remittances.

Figure 4: General informal remittance transaction mechanism



Source: Asian Development Bank in Ozaki (2012: 20)

Moreover, the hawala system includes the absence of a paper trail of completed transfers, values the privacy and concealment of its customers, and make an effort to avoid any formal code of practice enforced on monetary intermediation in numerous territories (Lascaux, 2015). The informality and confidentiality of the hawala system can be desirable to undocumented migrants because of the fear of arrest or deportation. The formal channels can expose them to the authorities or law enforcement agencies. The downside of the hawala system is that because of its informality, users are deprived of legal security of their common accountabilities, which actors in the formal banking structure benefit from, and have to choose as an alternative to informal methods of shielding their interests from potential undesirable happenings (Lascaux, 2015). For example, suppose money transmitted by the migrants to the place of origin does not get delivered. In those circumstances, it is challenging to trace/recover the cash because of the informality of the remitting process.

3.4 Reverse remittances

Research and studies on international remittances, in cash and in-kind, have paid a great deal of attention to the flow of money and resources from the places of destination to the areas of origin. This study argues that the comprehension and conception of remittances as one-directional obstructs the in-depth understanding and significant contribution of the bidirectional flow of remittances and dissuades the awareness of the mutual relations between people at the places of origin and the places of destination. The above brings attention to reverse remittances which are money transmitted from the opposite route, from people in the places of origin to their relatives who are migrants in the destination areas for their upkeep during challenging periods by making available food and housing costs (Nepal, Park and Lee, 2020). Ratha, Mohapatra and Silwal (2009) postulate that economic research on migration has mainly been attentive to remittances received by people in the places of origin and mostly paid little attention to reverse remittances. Brown et al. (2014) assert that most of the movement of remittances are from the migrants in the destination areas to the locations of origin; conversely, they note that cash also flows from the places of origin to the areas of destination.

They also posit that, for example, migrants who move for employment opportunities may receive reverse remittances through monetary resources from their relatives in the place of origin during difficult periods, and student migrants may also receive sizeable reverse transfers. The above reveals the significance of not just the one-way flow of remittances from the migrant-receiving locations to the place of origin. But also a two-way movement of remittances that includes reverse remittances. Abranches's (2014) study on remittances and well-being between Guinea-Bissau and Portugal reveals that reverse remittances were transferred from Guinea-Bissau to Portugal. The items involved in the reverse remittances in the study included items such as plant remedies, vegetables and meat, among other foods; they were linked to Guinea-Bissau's social, natural and spiritual world to provide safeguard, welfare and health to Guinean migrants based in Portugal. The study also indicated bi-directional remittances in the context of transnationalism and relationships amongst migrants and their associates back home (Abranches, 2014). Thus, remittance flows from the origin to the destination areas and then from the destination to the origin places. Notable in the research is how remittances from the destination place were in monetary form. Reverse remittances from the origin place were of symbolic value and transferred as gifts and forms of reciprocity(Abranches, 2014).

In research on informal insurance, migrants' transnational networks and reverse remittances between the Netherlands and Ghana, Mazzucato (2009) provides a helpful narrative on reverse remittances and the two-way flow of remittances. The study indicates that migrants also encounter difficulties and times of crisis. Their approach to getting through the challenges and problems includes reverse remittances in the form of services from relatives and networks in the place of origin (Mazzucato, 2009). The arguments are expanded in A 2011 study again by Mazzucato on the reverse and two-way remittances between the global north and the global south using the example of Ghana and Netherlands, but giving more emphasis on reverse remittances from Ghana to migrants in the Netherlands.

The study revealed that a significant portion of remittances from the place of origin to migrants in the destination area is through services rendered. The service rendered comprised child care, assisting business and housing ventures, and helping to acquire immigration-related documents for legal stay in the place of destination (Mazzucato, 2011). Carling (2014) has also engaged in the discussions on reverse remittances in his study on remittances and transnational relationships and argues that relatives or household members in the place of origin may also transfer cash during difficult periods to migrants in the destination location. Therefore, remittance flows are not always one-directional, from the destination to the origin places. Equally important are the bidirectional flows, which include reverse remittances from the origin to the destination areas to support migrants abroad.

3.5 Motivations for remitting

This segment discusses the conceptions of motivations to remit; in other words, the section reviews why migrants send remittances from the places of destination to the locations of origin. Lucas and Stark (1985) instigated the discussions and arguments on the motivations of remittances and the drivers of remittances by using research from Botswana. Since then, there has been an expansion of evolving bodies of writings on the motivation to remit. Lucas and Stark (1985) identify pure altruism, pure self-interest, and then a combination of tempered altruism and enlightened self-interest. Contemporary literature (Askarov and Doucouliagos, 2020; Dary and Ustarz, 2020; Nadeem, Abbasi and Beenish, 2020) shows that sending remittances is multifaceted and challenging to use a particular reason to describe the transfer of money and goods back to the place of origin. Askarov and Doucouliagos (2020) noted Lucas and Stark's (1985) argument by positing that remittances can be driven by several influences, comprising intra-household contracts, altruism and self-interest. For instance, households may

view migration as an approach to capitalize on their general well-being by broadening household income from numerous local or international channels (Askarov and Doucouliagos, 2020). As part of this plan, households may choose to invest in the schooling of migrants, increasing their wages or returns potential; families can then expect remittances in exchange (Askarov and Doucouliagos, 2020). The various drivers and motivations for remittances are discussed below.

3.5.1 Altruism and motivation to remit

First, Lucas and Stark (1985) argued that pure altruism is about the inclination and desire of migrants to send resources back home because of their utility and the utility of family and household members in the place of origin. Altruism is about the selflessness, care, and generosity to assist an individual or people and assist with people's well-being (Agarwal and Horowitz, 2002; Siegel and Loschman, 2015). The altruistic argument also implies that the earnings that migrants make are constructively associated with remittances, given that the migrants who earn more resources are likely to have the capacity to remit (Khanal, 2020; Kushnirovich, 2021, Parella, Silvestre and Petroff, 2021; Van Dalen, Groenewold and Fokkema, 2005). In the context of altruism, Khamkhom and Jampaklay (2020) posit that suppose that the migration decision is a collective task, it can be argued that migrants are driven to assist their relatives and household members in the home country. The primary objective is improving their livelihoods, irrespective of the concern of reduced earnings in the short run (Khamkhom and Jampaklay, 2020). Therefore, in the context of altruistic reasons, remittances transmitted to the place of origin to meet the household or family consumption requirements or access to basic needs are fundamental, especially for poor communities.

3.5.2 Self-interest and motivation to remit

According to Khanal (2020), self-interest reason to send remittances supposes that migrants are mainly motivated by profitable and monetary self-interest when transferring remittances to the place of origin. Like investments in financial possessions, property and land; therefore, migrants send remittances from their savings in the pursuit of accruing material possessions (Khanal, 2020). Various scholars concur with this argument by noting that self-interest involves purely self-centred reasons when assisting loved ones (Khamkhom and Jampaklay, 2020; Lucas and Stark, 1985; Kushnirovich, 2021; Oteng-Abayie et al.,2020; Parella, Silvestre and Petroff, 2021; Siegel and Loschman, 2015). For example, remittances can be motivated by the ambition to get inheritance favours and the transmission of remittances to acquire and maintain assets back in the place of origin (Khamkhom and Jampaklay, 2020; Oteng-Abayie et al.,2020; Siegel and Loschman, 2015). And also, Siegel and Loschman (2015) note that the

preparation to return home can result in the channelling of remittances for acquiring fixed capital such as property, land, and livestock.

3.5.3 Tempered altruism or enlightened self-interest and motivation to remit

Lucas and Stark (1985) argue that altruism and pure self-interest alone are possibly partial descriptions of the scope of remittances and their variability through various periods and for each individual. They provide another model and view remittances as part of an intertemporal, equally valuable contractual agreement between migrants and relatives in the place of origin. Siegel and Loschman (2015) assented to the same view by positing that while a particular description motive for remitting is helpful, it is significant to comprehend the inherent interdependency amongst the motives to remit while creating an applicable experimental identification plan. Mahmud (2020) argues that Lucas and Stark (1985), in combining the two motivations for remitting, projected that it would help rationalise the degree and discrepancy in remittances in a certain period and between individuals. Accordingly, Lucas and Stark (1985) supposed a contractual arrangement of co-insurance, investment and risk-sharing between the migrant and the relatives or family back home (De Haas, 2007; Mahmud, 2020).

Therefore, the three main assumptions on remittance transmission are altruism, self-interest and insurance. Parella, Silvestre and Petroff (2021) argue that migrants and, commonly, their households or relatives back home form, at times, implicit and contractual arrangements; the pacts can be related to a loan reimbursement, co-insurance determinations and exchange for services offered. Nonetheless, they postulate that it is commonly acknowledged that overlying reasons are problematic to disconnect, and variables could be understood in diverse ways and circumstances. Kushnirovich (2021) notes that economic motives for migration are assumed to be positively associated with remittances in the context of insurance, altruistic strategic motivation, and investment. This thesis argues that, regardless of the reasons for sending remittances, the goods or cash received by family or household units, especially in the global south and developing countries, are essential for better livelihoods.

3.6 Remittances and development

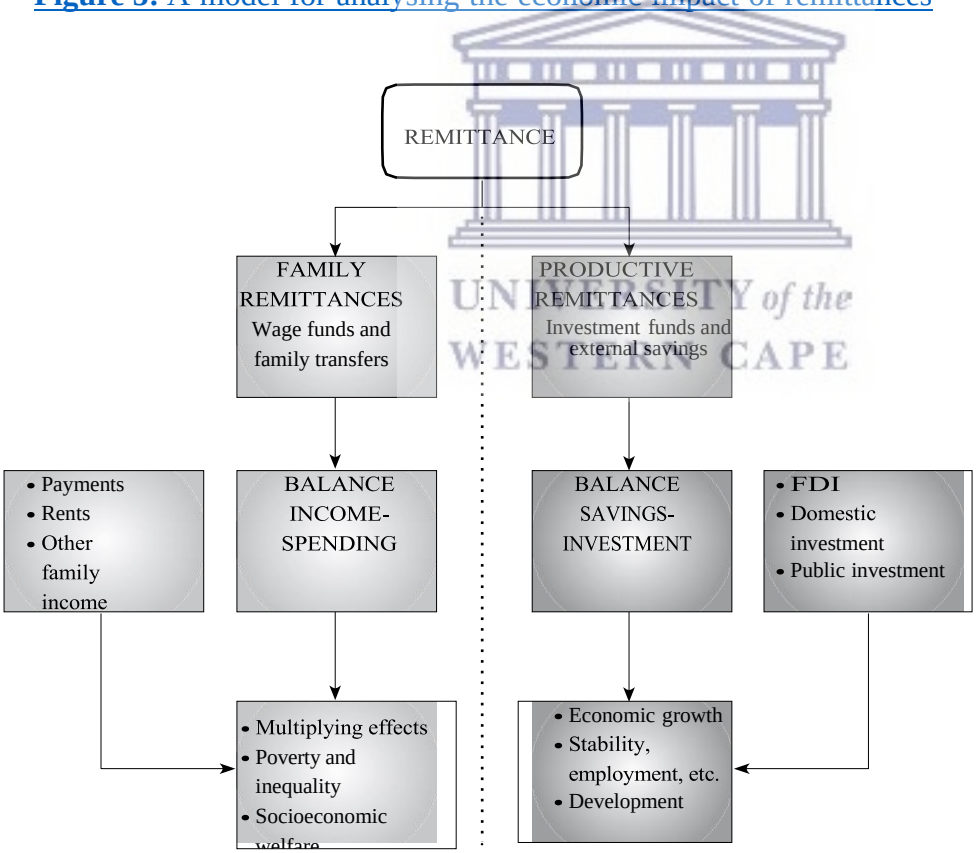
The developmental impact of remittances in migration and development contestations, discussions, and research is still contentious. At the centre of the narratives on remittances and development are the two groups, on one side, those who view remittances for personal or consumption as unproductive and non-developmental or hindrance to economic growth. On

the other, those who view remittances for personal or consumption as productive and developmental or progress to development.

3.6.1 Remittances as unproductive and non-developmental

Since the late 1960s, the pessimistic perspectives on migration issues started to view migration as non-productive or non-developmental because of factors like brain drain and depletion of economically active skilled people in the migrant-sending places, as well as the condemnation of remittances used for consumption and not industrious investment (De Haas, 2010). De Haas (2005) reported a migration assumption that remittances are primarily directed to conspicuous spending and non-productive investments, consequently assumed to result in inactive and precarious reliance on remittances. The prevailing opinion from the 1970s onwards is that people use remittance in the place of origin primarily on houses, food, vehicles, clothing and imported consumption belongings, whereas venturing into productive or economic activities is uncommon (De Haas, 2005).

Figure 5: A model for analysing the economic impact of remittances



Source: Adapted from (Canales, 2008:14)

Consequently, the extreme standpoint views migrant undertakings as the “Migrant syndrome” or “Dutch disease” that depletes the place of origins of their labour and capital, swarming out local production of tradeable supplies (Taylor: 1999: 64). Therefore, the pessimists view remittances as a hindrance to the development of the places of origin. Canales (2008) demonstrates how from a macroeconomic perspective, remittances are considered productive when used for economic growth or foreign direct investment (FDI), domestic investment, public investment, balance savings-investment, investment funds, and external savings (Figure 5). The pessimist opinion on migration and remittances as non-developmental is biased and lacks practical and methodological research backing. First, the notion that remittances are predominantly used on education, health, groceries and housing and are unproductive is a biased and partial viewpoint. It is a narrow perspective because remittances for health, education, food and other basic needs have a developmental impact. Because of their contribution to the welfare, healthiness, food security and enhancements of livelihoods of many communities, especially in the poor/developing countries.

Second, the developmental impact of remittances differs with period and location. However, studies and research in Latin America, Asia, and Africa reveal that remittances are significant and utilized to acquire basic needs and for the reduction of poverty (see Acosta et al., 2006; Acosta et al., 2008; Anyanwu and Erhijakpor, 2010; Chimhowu et al. 2005; Yoshino, Taghizadeh-Hesary and Otsuka, 2018). Similarly, remittances upsurges household incomes; consequently, they are a potent anti-poverty component in developing countries (Ratha, 2013). To sum up, the argument that remittances for household consumption are unproductive or non-developmental is a limited perspective that affords diminutive understandings and is deficient in systematically investigating the connection between the drivers of migration, the motives for remitting and the impact on poor and developing communities.

3.6.2 Remittances as productive and developmental

The New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) provided the most fundamental concept for comprehending migration, remittances and development narratives. Massey et al. (1993) postulate that the (NELM) surfaced in the late 1990s as a critique and reaction to the neo-classical migration theory Ravensteirn initiated in the late 1880s. The neo-classical migration theory is limited in addressing contemporary migration and development discussions. To understand the position and critique proposed by the NELM and the developmental impact of

remittances, it is crucial to summarise the neo-classical migration theory and other migration-related models.

Ernst Georg Ravenstein's narratives and laws of migration posit that: (1) most human mobility takes place within a short distance, (2) Most population mobility is from agricultural to industrial areas, and (3) Advancement and development of bigger towns or cities are primarily an outcome of migration and not natural progression (4) Migration progress in connection with growth in industries, transport and commercial systems. (5) All human mobility or movements create a counter-flow. (6) The majority of women embark on short-distance migration, whereas most men are involved in long-distance or international migration (8) Economic development factors are the leading cause of most human mobility (De Haas, 2010 in Dinbabo and Nyasulu, 2015).

The human capital approach suggested by Sjaastad (1962) asserts that population movement is rooted in the investment in a person concerning losses and profits. The premise of the human capital assumption is that a migrant immigrates to the place of destination after evaluating the possible proceeds or earnings of the migration decision. The stress-threshold model advanced by Wolpert (1965) affirms that persons make a risk and gain assessment before migrating; however, they do not make the assessment post the decision and migration. Lee (1966) proposed the migration model that paid attention to migration's push and pulls dynamics. The push elements are unfavourable conditions in the home country, and the pull aspects are the flattering state of affairs in the destination locations. For instance, the characteristics such as unemployment, poverty and political oppression can push individuals from their home locations (Dinbabo and Nyasulu, 2015). Conversely, improved conditions in the destination locations, such as employment prospects, high earnings and returns, social equality and enhanced social protection structure, can pull immigrants (Dinbabo and Nyasulu, 2015).

Similarly, The Harris and Todaro hypothesis utilizing a two-sector model in the context of rural-urban migration argued that the drivers of migration are an expectation of higher remunerations and improved returns, economic benefits and the possibility of employment likelihood at the place of destination (Todaro, 1969; Harris and Todaro, 1970). The system model of migration was proposed by Mabogunje (1970); the premise of this notion is that internal migration is based on the interaction between the rural-urban spaces. Accordingly,

push reasons from the rural side include societal standards and traditional decrees. And on the urban side, pull dynamics such as income returns and employment openings.

The Mobility Transition Model proposed by Zelinsky (1971) comprehends migration as the association between a specific site and its levels of development. According to Hagen-Zanker (2008), Zelinsky's hypothesis is related to the modernization theory pioneered by Rostow (1959: 1), where there are five stages to modernity; these include the (a) traditional society and (b) the preconditions for take-off (c) the take-off (d) the drive to maturity (e) the age of high mass consumption. The value-expectancy model states that the judgement or choice to move to other locations is founded on various benefits and expectations of the migration outcome (Crawford, 1973). Hagen-Zanker (2008) argues that the benefits of the value-expectancy model are beyond economic deliberations and can be based on individual or family features like riches, self-sufficiency, community customs and education.

The world-systems theory proposed by Wallerstein (1974) and its structural perspective view population movement as an outcome of globalization and disorders and displacements in peripheral locations globally because of imperialism and the capitalist development of neoclassical governments and conglomerates (Hagen-Zanker, 2008). The dual labour market theory describes human mobility as an outcome of the operational demand for labour in advanced locations, which acts as a pull aspect (Priore, 1979). The social systems perspective (Hoffmann-Nowotny, 1981) asserts that human mobility occurs because of resolving structural hostilities (power queries) and anominal frictions (prestige queries) (Hagen-Zanker, 2008). Migrants anticipate attaining their preferred status in the host location. Nonetheless, regularly, tensions are transmuted and not lessened (Hagen-Zanker, 2008). The limitation of the neoclassical theory and other models before the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) is that they neglect one of the vital aspects of migration and development: the remittances phenomenon.

The NELM posit that migration can be a driver of development dynamic, decreasing the output and investment limitations encountered by households in market crises and making earnings growth connections (De Haas, 2010; Stark and Bloom, 1985; Stark and Levhari, 1982; Taylor, 1999). Accordingly, Taylor (1999) states that the NELM is linked to the developmental impact of remittances, which notes that, first, migration decisions are an element of the household plans to increase earnings, get resources to invest in other undertakings and protect them from

incomes and production perils. Second, remittances can subsequently cause developmental aspects by reducing families' productivity and investment challenges in poor developing nations (Taylor, 1999). Unlike the Neo-classical migration theory, which focuses on the individual, the NELM pays more attention to the collective or community in a risk distribution context. Neo-classical migration theory leans toward the opinion that migrants are atomistic, utility capitalizing persons, and generally neglect other migration drivers and overlook the idea that migrants are part of social units like communities, households and families (De Haas, 2010; Taylor, 1999).

At the core of the NELM is viewing the action and choices of one person from a broader community perspective, where the households and families are central to the migration choices and determinations (De Haas, 2010). In the milieu of remittances and the NELM, the premise is that family units make the migration decision to counter any potential earning challenges by using remittances to safeguard their welfare or well-being. Remittances are overlooked in the neo-classical migration concepts; however, the NELM recognize remittances as one of the most crucial reasons for migration (De Haas, 2010). High quantities of consumption expenditure by remittance-receiving families can cause a progressive bearing on industrious ventures in the places of origin, on the condition that the consumption necessitates drivers of investments by other family units or businesses (Taylor, 1999).

The effects of migration and remittances have to be evaluated compared to what migrant economies would have experienced in the absence of migration; therefore, reasons motivating migration choices consequently affect the bearings of migration and remittances on families and locations (Taylor, 1999). For example, the impact of remittances on poor communities or developing countries is significant in addressing challenges like poverty, inequality, low earnings and poor access to basic needs. The above is evidenced by global empirical evidence that indicates the importance of remittances (see Al and Kameyama, 2019; Akobeng, 2016; Azizi, 2021; Pendleton et al., 2007; Vacaflores, 2018, Tevera and Chikanda, 2009). Noteworthy, the developmental impact of remittances to emerging countries or developing nations is also relative to the drivers of international migration. For instance, the causes of international migration, as demonstrated in the migration and remittances literature, in the Zimbabwean context, include poverty, food insecurity, inequality, unemployment, and socio-economic and political crisis (Crush, Chikanda and Tawodzera, 2015; Crush and Tevera, 2010; Sithole and Dinbabo, 2016). In this setting, remittances can have a developmental impact on

migrant family units through better access to food, health, education, clothing, agriculture, a better quality of life, poverty alleviation, inequality reduction, and investment benefits in poor and developing societies.

3.7 Remittances: Global trends and empirical evidence

Recent global trends are essential in showing the nature and pattern of remittance flows worldwide. The information is useful, especially for development practitioners, policymakers, researchers and governments in the global south or the developing world. Noteworthy is the evidence discussed in this chapter in the global south that remittances play a vital role in poverty alleviation, livelihoods and access to basic needs for households, families and individuals. However, remittances transmitted through informal channels are critically missing in most international remittance trends and reports. Second, and most importantly, the trends and information on global remittances mainly focus on cash remittances and overlook remittances in-kind transfers like goods, including food. The bias is precarious considering that remittances in-kind play a vital role in the daily consumption and access to basic needs for family units and people in the world's poor regions. For example, in-kind remittances/goods, especially food remittances, play an essential role in the food security needs of inhabitants in the global south. Nevertheless, below are recent global trends on formal remittances.

3.7.1 Europe, Asia and the Pacific

The World Bank (2019:16) report revealed that formal remittances to Europe and Central Asia had a 22% increase in 2017, and in 2018 increased by a projected 11.2% to $59 billion. Due to the adverse effects of the COVID-19 pandemic and the drop in oil prices, remittances to Europe and Central Asia were expected to plunge in 2020 (World Bank, 2020). This was evident in the World Bank (2021b:2) report, which revealed that remittances to Europe and Central Asia were projected to have decreased by 9.7%. The World Bank (2019:15) report also indicated that formal remittances to East Asia and the Pacific region were projected to increase by 6.7% in 2018, which is 1.6% more than the upsurge rate in 2017. In addition, the 2019 annual upturn rate was estimated to be 4.2%, then 4.7% in 2020 (World Bank 2019:15). However, formal remittances to the East Asia and Pacific area were predicted to decrease by 10.5% in 2020 to $131 billion because of the adverse effects of the COVID-19 pandemic (World Bank, 2020: 22). The latest data noted that remittances to East Asia and the Pacific decreased by 7.9% (World Bank, 2021b:2).

In 2018 remittances flows to South Asia rose by a projected 12.3%, a faster pace than in 2017, when there was a 5.7% growth rate (World Bank, 2019:21). The rise was propelled by robust economic environments in high-income countries (predominantly the United States) and highly favourable oil prices that had a progressive influence on remittance outflows from the Gulf Cooperation Council region (World Bank, 2019:21). On the contrary, the (World Bank: 2020: 32) report predicted remittances to South Asia to undergo a fall of about 4% in 2020 and 11% in 2021. The report indicated that the expected decrease and slowdown in remittance flows to the South Asian area was caused by the persistent global economic downturn because of the coronavirus plague. However, the World Bank (2021b:2) report revealed that in 2020 remittances to South Asia grew by 5.2%.

According to Vargas-Silva, Jha and Sugiyarto (2009), remittances in Asia seem to lessen the poverty gap; thus, remittances could be a valuable deterrent for decreasing the depth of poverty. The impact of remittances on poverty alleviation, particularly at household levels, is significant to policy effect mainly because many migrant workers from South Asia are from underprivileged communities (Ozaki, 2012). Likewise, Ullah (2017) notes that remittances in South Asia lessen poverty. In the Pacific, remittances have also positively impacted poverty reduction (Brown, Connell and Jimenez-Soto, 2014). Giannetti, Federici and Raitano's (2009) study on remittances in Central-Eastern Europe indicated that remittances are essential for poverty lessening.

3.7.2 Latin America and the Caribbean

In 2018 the formal remittances transfers to Latin America and the Caribbean rose by 9.5%, reaching $88 billion (World Bank, 2019:18). In 2019, the remittances in the Latin America and the Caribbean regions were estimated to grow by 4% (World Bank, 2019:18). This upturn was linked to the persistent power of the U.S. labour market in 2017–18 and, to a certain degree, Spain. It is important to note that remittance transfers to Latin America and the Caribbean area were estimated to get to $96 billion in 2020, a drop of -0.2% over the preceding year and in 2021, growth in remittances was estimated to fall by about 8% (World Bank: 2020:27). A recent report by the World Bank (2021b:2) indicated that in 2020 remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean increased by 6.5% and were reinforced by a recuperating economy and

relatively advancing labour market in the United States. Several studies conducted in Latin America reveal the importance and positive impact of remittances (Acosta et al., 2006; Acosta et al., 2008; Orozco, 2002; Vacaflores, 2018; Borja, 2020).

Orozco (2002) posits that in Latin America, remittances enhanced the situations of household members in the home areas. Acosta et al. (2006) assert that remittances play an important role in poverty lessening. Similarly, Acosta et al. (2008) argue that remittances and migration significantly reduce poverty. In Latin America, remittances and migration seem to assist in improving the living circumstances of many low-income family units (Acosta et al., 2008). Vacaflores (2018) indicates that remittances are valuable and significant to inequality and poverty. Remittances can play a part in human development by helping a sizable number of people end extreme poverty and facilitating improved health, education and housing (Borja, 2020). In the Caribbean, remittances are also revealed to positively impact water, sanitation, life expectancy, access to food, and health (Lim and Simmons, 2016). The above studies demonstrate the significance of income generated from remittances used for household expenditure and access to basic needs.

3.7.3 The Middle East and North Africa (MENA)

Remittances to the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region rose by 10.6% in 2017 and increased by 9.1% in 2018; the increase was predicted to carry on, although at a slower rate of about 3% because of the moderating progression in the euro region (World Bank, 2019:20). Conversely, remittances to the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) area were estimated to decrease by roughly 8% per cent in 2020 and 2021 by 8% (World Bank, 2020: 30). This expected downward movement of remittances was a result of the undesirable impact of the coronavirus pandemic. However, in 2020 remittances to the Middle East and North Africa increased by a relatively low rate of 2.3% (World Bank, 2021b: 2).

According to the report by the World Bank (2020:7), remittance transfers to low and middle-income countries were projected to drop 7.2% to $508 billion in 2020 and preceded by an additional decrease in 2021 of 7.5% per cent to $470 billion because of the course of economic conditions in several main migrant-hosting regions, particularly the United States, European countries, and the Gulf Cooperation Council. The report also indicates that remittance flow has been negatively impacted by the unpleasant effect of the COVID-19 pandemic; for example, migrants are at risk of loss of jobs and income sources, leading to a decrease in remittance

flows. Awdeh's (2018) study on the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) indicates that remittances are essential for poverty reduction and household spending on health, clothing, and food by enhancing household expenditures. Therefore, remittances are vital for household consumption, especially in a crisis or economic shocks where access to resources and basic needs can be challenging.

3.7.4 Remittances to Sub-Saharan Africa

In the last two decades, remittances have become a vital form of income for many households in Sub-Saharan Africa. The World Bank (2019) report indicated that remittances to Sub-Saharan Africa showed a persistent upturn and increased in 2018. The report noted that remittances to Sub-Saharan Africa were projected to increase by 9.6% from $42 billion in 2017 to $46 billion in 2018 and were expected to reach $48 billion by 2019 and $51 billion by 2020 (World Bank, 2019: 23). The report argues that the upsurge remittances trend detected from 2016 is founded on the robust economic environments in the high-income countries where many migrants from Sub-Saharan African get their wages or revenue. Recent data showed that in 2020 formal remittances to Sub-Saharan Africa decreased by 12.5% (World Bank, 2021b: 2).

3.8 Empirical evidence: Remittances and Africa

Rapid urbanization or internal migration, urban poverty, rising global food prices and rural livelihoods led to the academic focus on rural-urban linkages (Andersson Djurfeldt, 2012). Studies in Africa have also shown bi-directional remittance flows between the rural-urban areas (see Duda, Fasse and Grote, 2018; Frayne, 2005; Frayne, 2007; Pendleton, Crush and Nickanor, 2014). Research indicates that urban migrants get food support from their rural families, relatives and networks for their sustenance in the context of being poor or uncertain in urban locations (Frayne, 2010; Onyango, Crush and Owuor, 2021; Tawodzera, 2013; Tawodzera, 2012; Tawodzera, Zanamwe and Crush, 2012). However, Crush and Caesar (2016) argue that in the setting of internal migration, the expectation is attention to both cash and in-kind remittances in the evolving research on urban-rural connections.

Yet, the main focus has been on cash than food transfers; thus, internal bidirectional food transmissions in Africa, including the effects, features and drivers, are still under-researched (Crush and Caesar, 2016). Additionally, Crush and Caesar (2018) assert that the international focus afforded to cash transfers over the past decade has produced an enormously vital evidence source on national, regional and global level remitting impacts and aspects. On the contrary, in-kind remittances such as food and its characteristics and effects have been under-

studied (Crush and Caesar, 2018; Crush and Caesar, 2020). Thus, considering the developmental impact and significance of food transfers to the food needs, access to food or well-being of many individuals and families in Africa, more attention should be directed to food remitting. This thesis is attentive to the under-researched food remittances by focusing on international or cross-border food transfers.

3.8.1 Africa and remittances

The impact and nature of remittances in Africa differ from location and period. However, Gupta, Pattillo, and Wagh (2007) show that remittances in Africa are countercyclical and assist household needs. This is mainly for food crop agrarians, classically the most underprivileged socially and economically (Gupta, Pattillo, and Wagh, 2007). Notably, remittances are mainly for access to health, education, nutritious food and other necessities (Gupta, Pattillo, and Wagh, 2007). Anyanwu and Erhijakpor (2010) reveal that global remittances have a strong, statistically significant impact on alleviating poverty in Africa. Similarly, the research in Sub-Saharan Africa by Adenutsi (2011), Akobeng (2016) and Gupta, Pattillo and Wagh (2009) indicates that remittances have a significant poverty lessening and income equalization impact. Consequently, remittances in Africa are essential, especially for access to basic needs and poverty reduction.

3.8.2 Ghana and remittances

Similarly, evidence from Ghana, for example, Quartey (2006), shows that remittances improve household wellbeing and the trends of migrant remittances upsurge during periods of economic shocks; that is to say, the remittances are counter-cyclical. In their study on Ghana, Adams and Cuecuecha (2013) revealed that households receiving remittances significantly diminish their chances of experiencing poverty. Kato and Dadson (2016) note that international remittances positively reduce poverty in Ghana, primarily when the remittances are utilized to access schooling, health, and housing. A recent study by Quartey, Ackah and Lambon-Quayefio (2019) adds that households that receive remittances, especially international remittances, are likely to have savings. For those reasons, remittances in Ghana are significant for poverty lessening and household wellbeing, particularly in times of crisis.

3.8.3 Nigeria and remittances

Likewise, in Nigeria, the study results by Obi, Bartolini and D'Haese (2020) revealed that remittances are beneficial in attaining household food security, especially during food crises. Akanle and Adesina (2017) showed the importance, significance and positive connection

between remittances and household welfare. Research by Bang, Mitra and Wunnava (2020) indicates that remittances decrease poverty by expanding household expenditures. Likewise, Olowa et al. (2013) noted that remittances diminish poverty level, gravity, and acuteness in rural Nigeria. Correspondingly, Chiwuzulum Odozi et al. (2010) revealed that remittances lessened poverty and assisted in equalizing household income inequality. Ajaero et al. (2018) illustrated that having an international migrant and getting remittances notably upsurges household welfare in Nigeria. Therefore, in Nigeria, remittances are essential in accessing food for food security and household welfare.

3.8.4 Ethiopia and remittances

Evidence from Ethiopia illustrates the significance of remittances to household members. Research by Beyene (2014) and Assaminew et al. (2010) reveal that remittances significantly reduce poverty. A study by Andersson (2012) indicates that remittances have a considerable effect impact on the welfare or well-being of many families. Abadi et al. (2018) illustrate how remittance affords food security and poverty mitigation in rural areas of developing areas. Compared to other African regions, remittances in Ethiopia are also essential for poverty alleviation and supporting welfare and well-being for many families or household units.

3.8.5 Remittances and Southern Africa

In Southern Africa, because of the lack of data on remittance flows and utilization, the Southern African Migration Programme (SAMP) devised the Migration and Remittances Survey (MARS) to investigate the movements and use of remittances in Zimbabwe, Swaziland, Botswana, Mozambique and Lesotho (Pendleton et al., 2007). As shown by Pendleton et al. (2007), the evidence in Southern Africa reveals that remittances in cash and kind yield a substantial input to the economic and social life of the receiving countries and are significant in the consumption of general needs like food. Second, remittances are essential for times of crisis and special occasions (Pendleton et al., 2007).

Third, in the absence of remittances, household members' and relatives' standard of living in the place of origin would be downgraded (Pendleton et al., 2007). Fourth, for others, the lack of remittances would signify that households suffer from hunger and, to some, negatively affect the quality of life (Pendleton et al., 2007). A study by Crush et al. (2010) on Lesotho in the context of migration, remittances and development indicated that the livelihoods of many households were reliant on remittances. The study also revealed that the most common channel

of remittances was via informal routes. In addition, the research revealed that the receivers of remittances in Lesotho mainly used the cash they received for basic consumption. Notable in the study is that most respondents showed remittances were primarily used to access food and other things like clothes and education.

3.8.6 Empirical literature on Remittances: Zimbabwe-South Africa Corridor

In the last two decades, various inquiries have explored the remittances phenomenon in the context of Zimbabwe and South Africa (see Maphosa, 2007; Tevera & Chikanda, 2009; Crush, Chikanda & Tawodzera, 2015; Crush and Tawodzera, 2016; Crush and Tawodzera, 2017.). The rich literature on Zimbabwe and remittances show how the nature of remittance narratives is multi-dimensional. To begin with, Maphosa (2007) argues that remittances to Zimbabwe from migrants in South Africa play an essential role in the well-being of those left behind in Zimbabwe, especially in the issues of access to education, health and a better standard of living. Maphosa (2007) also notes that the migrants from Zimbabwe that are based in South Africa, including undocumented migrants, transmit a substantial amount of remittances back to their home areas. Remittances provide a significant basis of income for many families (Maphosa, 2007). Moyo and Nicolau (2016) had a similar view in their study on the Zimbabwean migrant teachers in South Africa and their effect on their loved ones left behind in their place of origin. Their study indicated that the remittances transferred from South Africa had a developmental impact by helping households in Zimbabwe access education, health, nutritious food, poverty reduction and asset accumulation.

Tevera and Chikanda (2009) posit that remittances from South Africa are a crucial component of households back in Zimbabwe as well as for the economy of the country. Their research indicates that remittances in cash and in-kind channelled informally and formally are mainly used to access things like food, education, health, agriculture, transport and real estate. The remittances in kind included food items, and the research findings showed that when there are scarcities of food and other basic goods, remittances in kind rise, especially foodstuffs (Tevera and Chikanda, 2009). The study also points out that in the absence of remittances, the circumstances of many families and individuals in Zimbabwe would be catastrophic. Additionally, Tevera and Chikanda (2009) make a significant point related to this study: the internet is emerging as a channel to transfer remittances. Crush (2012), in a study on the connection between international migration and food security, presented how Zimbabweans

depend significantly on remittances from migrants to access food and other basic needs. More importantly, the research showed that cash and in-kind remittances, including food remittances, are significant for food security in Zimbabwe.

Similarly, Crush, Chikanda and Tawodzera (2015) revealed that most remitters in South Africa transfer remittances to Zimbabwe for food consumption and other things like access to health, education, shelter and clothing. In the context of episodes of food shortages and high food prices in Zimbabwe, of great significance is that most respondents indicated that they transferred food remittances back home. Makina (2013) explored the characteristics of the migrants who transmit remittances from Zimbabwe to South Africa. The study revealed that remitting behaviour had a positive correlation with age. That is, older people were remitting more; more dependents supported in the place of origin had resulted in more remitters; higher-earning quantities led to increased remitting choice and remitters who wished to return home remitted more (Makina, 2013). In addition, men and married individuals were remitting more than women, and single people and remitters who had basic schooling were remitting more than those who had acquired tertiary education. A study on youth Zimbabweans in South Africa by Sithole and Dinbabo (2016) revealed that most of them transferred remittances in cash to Zimbabwe for food consumption and access to basic needs; a few indicated that they transmitted food items back home.

Nyamunda (2014) investigated the origins and practice of cross-border couriers or transporters identified as 'omalayitsha', a system used to send remittances in cash and in-kind between the Zimbabwe-South Africa border. The article is based on the Matabeleland region, where the omalayitsha system is commonly used. The research identified three key ways of the omalayitsha systems: large registered courier companies, medium-size operators like commuter taxis and kombis, and small operators (Nyamunda, 2014). All three identified typologies of omalayitsha drew attention to the importance and variety of methods and ways of practice undertaken in the movement of remittances. In the same context, Thebe and Mutyatyu (2017) focused on the 'malayisha' or 'omalayisha'[2] system, which is a way to send remittances informally between South Africa and Zimbabwe via various networks. The study revealed that the 'malayisha' practice is mainly characterized by social embeddedness and

[2] The informal cross-border transport operators that are used to transmit remittances are termed interchangeably in the literature (Nyamunda, 2014; Nzima, 2017; Thebe and Mutyatyu, 2017), as 'malayitsha', 'omalayitsha', 'omalayisha' and 'malayisha'.

relies on social relationships, associations, bonds, connections and references. In the research, the informal 'malayisha' system is significant in helping the transference of remittances that reach the remote rural areas in Zimbabwe.

Nzima's (2017) study examined the formal and informal remitting channels used by Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa to send remittances to Tsholotsho-Zimbabwe. It discovered that the decision to use a particular method of remitting is based on the necessity to maximise the prospects and reduce the difficulties of sending cash or goods back home. In the study, the problems faced by migrants in sending remittances include immigration status in the host country, high transmission charges and loss or damaged in-kind remittances during informal transfers. The research illustrated that the most preferred channel of remitting to Zimbabwe by migrants in South Africa was the informal method, evidenced by the predominant utilization of the Malayitsha system. The article indicated that the Malayitsha system was the preferred channel because of the trust and social connections in both the places of origin and destination, low transfer prices, reachable to undocumented migrants and lack of access to financial establishments in the remote locations back home.

3.9 Knowledge gap and remittances

This chapter unpacked various issues, narratives and debates related to remittances. In discussing the remittances discourse, it is apparent that remittances are an essential part of the development agenda, especially for the global south or developing countries. However, research and literature on remittances pay more attention to cash remittances. More troubling is that in some of the literature on remittances, the concept is defined exclusively as money transferred to the place of origin by migrants. There is the neglect of the other part of remittances, which is remittances in-kind. International or cross-border food remittances are under-researched, especially issues related to the nature, trends, quantity, cost and significance of food remittances. The limited focus on in-kind transfers has led scholars (Crush and Caesar, 2016; Crush and Caesar, 2018; Crush and Caesar, 2020) to argue investigators, scholars, and policymakers seem to pay limited attention to in-kind remittances like food when having dialogues on the effects of remittances on development. Furthermore, Apatinga, Asiedu and Obeng (2022) posit that in-kind remittances like food have attained limited focus. Yet, the literature has established that in-kind remittances are crucial and consequently need policy and research attention.

Crush and Caesar (2016) argue that a plethora of research, studies and policy dialogues have more or less paid exclusive attention to cash remittances. They also posit that, first, the link between remitting and food seems to be related to the debates on the effect of cash remittances on agricultural issues in rural areas and the prevalent usage of cash remittances by receivers to buy food items. Second, they note the lack of in-depth focus on in-kind remittances, particularly food items at the local and international levels. The scarcity of research on the transmission of goods is also because the transfer of in-kind remittances does not happen in market channels; the in-kind transfers flow through informal ways (Crush and Caesar, 2016). In addition, they note that the remitting of food via informal channels has been overlooked compared to formal or market channels that have received a lot of attention. Consequently, they argue that this has led to the scarcity of comprehensive data on the volume, significance and effects of food remittances. For that reason, this thesis contributes to the body of knowledge on remittances in general and food remittances in particular by attending to the research gaps. The research will interrogate the food remittances and another concept which is social media.

3.10 Chapter conclusion

This chapter started with a discussion on the definitions and concepts of remittances. Then focused on the types of remittances comprising cash and in-kind transfers, specifically food remittances. Furthermore, the chapter weighed in on social and political remittances. Subsequently, the chapter reviewed the channels of transferring remittances which are formal and informal channels. Moreover, the chapter paid attention to reverse remittances. Also, the chapter appraised the motivations for transmitting remittances. In addition, the chapter evaluated the connection between remittances and development. Then, the chapter focused on global remittance trends and empirical evidence on African remittances. Finally, the chapter provided the knowledge gap in the literature and discussions on remittances. The research gap demonstrated how international or cross-border food remittances are under-researched and the need for more attention or further studies/research. The research gap on international/cross-border food remittances was addressed in this thesis. The next chapter pays a specific focus on the social media concept.

CHAPTER 4: OVERVIEW OF SOCIAL MEDIA

"Today's 'social media revolution' can therefore be seen as an evolution back to the roots, since it re-transforms the internet to what it was initially created for – a platform to facilitate information exchange between its users. " (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2012: 102).

4.1 Introduction

The attention of this chapter is on the concept of social media. First, the section traces the origins and development of social media. Second, the chapter is attentive to the social media user statistics, definitions and functions. Third, the chapter pays attention to the types of social media/social networking sites. Subsequently, the chapter discusses the connection between social media and development. Finally, the section unpacks the critiques levelled against the social media concept and platforms.

4.2 Origins and development of social media

To understand social media comprehensively, it is essential to trace back social media origins. Edosomwan et al. (2011) link the origins of social media to 1792 and the utilization of the telegraph used to transfer and obtain communications with people who were a long distance apart. Edosomwan et al. (2011) also note that the French Sociologist Emile Durkheim, with his work in the late 1800s, is generally recognized as the father of sociology and is regarded as one of the discoverers of social networks through his work which merged empirical research with sociological theory. In addition, the German sociologist Ferdinand Tonnies, with his work in the late 1800s, is also regarded as one of the inventors of social networks through his concepts on the social contract conceptions of society. According to (Edosomwan et al., 2011), Tonnies understood that social groups could exist because associates shared principles and views resulting from mutual conflict. Edosomwan et al. (2011) indicate that at the end of the 1800s, radio and telephone were utilized in social communication.

Sajithra and Patil (2013) argue that social media did not start as a novelty development; instead, its foundation is based on other technological advancements and progress in internet usage. Sajithra and Patil (2013) first argue that although Email is not described as part of social media, the origins of social media can be traced back to 1971, when the use of Email was invented. They argue that Email communication takes place online, just like social media. Second, they note that the founding of Usenet in 1979 as a worldwide distributed Internet discussion system accessible on computers; was an improvisation of the Email model to communicate messages

in various categories. Third, they state that the discovery of LISTSERV in 1984 progressed the utilization of Email messaging and helped people communicate with many individuals instantly. They posit that before the invention of LISTSERV, emails were administered manually through messaging an administrator who operated the email catalogue and requests to be added or deleted.

Fourth, they note the founding of Internet Relay Chat (IRC) in 1988 upgraded online communication; this entails group interaction in conversation settings and one-on-one messaging by way of private communication, including chat and data sending like files. They also indicate that Internet Relay Chat (IRC) preceded the popularity of personal websites, discussion groups and chat groups in the early 1990s and the expansion of internet usage in the mid-1990s when Private internet service providers (ISPs) commenced undertakings in the United States. In addition, they posit that in 1995 a social networking site called classmate.com originated to assist users in discovering and finding associates, colleges, contacts, or people they may have known in their lives. Sajithra and Patil (2013) also note that in the late 1990s and early 2000s, Blogging, podcasts, and Wikis developed from online technology usage, including Scripting News and Webcams. Therefore, the roots of social media can be traced back to the invention of the internet, the development of Email usage and the progress in creating messaging and communication platforms. In this context, social media's core is enabling online social networking by linking persons and groupings. The above makes it essential to understand social networking platforms which are types of social media.

Boyd and Ellison (2007) first trace the foundation of social networking sites to SixDegrees.com, the first networking site initiated in 1997; it enabled users to generate profiles, search and list friends, and exchange messages. Second, they noted that between 1997 and 2001, other platforms related to the SixDegrees.com concept of creating profiles and searching for friends or colleagues emerged; this included BlackPlanet, Asian Avenue, MiGente, Cyworld, LiveJournal, LunarStorm and Ryze.com. Third, they revealed that in 2002 Friendster was unveiled and focused on online dating and sharing of information and intended to link friends of friends and not strangers to know each other and start relationships. In 2003, MySpace was launched to connect alienated clients of Friendster (Boyd and Ellison, 2007). Boyd and Ellison (2007) also posit that other networking sites emerged as professional networking platforms. For example, Visible Path, Xing and LinkedIn; were driven by the need to make business people know each other (Boyd and Ellison, 2007). In addition, they indicated

that around this period, a plethora of social networking sites were launched. For example, Care2 was meant to connect activists, Dogster assisted with the linking of strangers, MyChurch tied Christian churches and their affiliates, and Couchsurfing linked travellers to persons who owned couches. Moreover, platforms that were fixed on sharing media started to have social networking technology; this included video sharing sites Youtube, Flickr for sharing photos, and Last.FM for music listening (Boyd and Ellison, 2007).

Social networking sites became a worldwide marvel. Boyd and Ellison (2007) argue that MySpace became popular in the United States and beyond, LunarStorm was mainly used in Sweden, Orkut was well received in Brazil, and later in India, Mixi was well adopted in Japan, and Grono gained popularity in Poland. Friendster was mainly utilized in the Pacific Islands, Bebo grew widely in Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom; in the Netherlands, Hyves was welcomed, and Hi5 was embraced in some parts of Europe, Latin America and South America (Boyd and Ellison, 2007). Also, they note that other social networking sites included Windows Live, which became popular globally, QQ in China, Cyworld in Korea, Skyrock in France, and the United States LiveJournal, Xanga and Vox. Social networking sites were crucial in illustrating how the technology of private messaging, video sharing, audio sharing and photo sharing was developing.

4.2.1 Facebook

Facebook, an online platform, was developed and then invented in 2004 by Mark Zuckerberg, a Harvard undergraduate learner (Sheldon, 2008). Facebook empowers its consumers to display themselves in an internet profile, add "friends" who can put up remarks on each other's pages, and check each other's profiles (Sheldon, 2008). Additionally, Facebook users can connect to online groups centred on shared interests and mutual preferences and gain knowledge of others' leisure pursuits, likings, choices and romantic relationship standings via their pages (Ellison et al., 2007 in Sheldon, 2008). Similarly, Boyd and Ellison (2007) note that in 2004, Facebook was launched. It started as a social networking site at Harvard University for the University's community only, then expanded to other universities and colleges and later included everyone (Boyd and Ellison, 2007). Activities that Facebook affords include sharing messages, videos, pictures, and links (Junco, 2013). A distinct feature that Facebook introduced was enabling users to have their profiles appear publicly to those using the Facebook platform, personalising profiles, and executing other activities. Moreover, instant messaging, calls, sharing media like

photos, videos and connecting with relatives, friends, contacts, colleagues, and even strangers is a solid attraction to users.

4.2.2 Twitter

Twitter is a micro-blogging online platform instituted and co-founded by Jack Dorsey in 2006 (Smith, Fischer. and Yongjian, 2012; Vergeer, 2015). The Twitter platform enables users to share or broadcast information called 'tweet' to a list of connections called 'followers' (Jansen et al., 2009). The transmitted or distributed information, also known as tweets, can consist of hyperlinks to news updates, blogs, and images, to mention a few, that appear on the home page of followers; most tweets are visibly accessible by the public (Smith, Fischer and Yongjian, 2012). The broadcasted information on Twitter can be shared directly to followers through instant messaging, Short Message Service (SMS), Really Simple Syndication (RSS), email, or other social networking sites (Jansen et al., 2009). Historically, Twitter was limited to sharing 180 characters per post; in recent times, a maximum of 280 characters can be shared on a single post (see Fazil and Abulaish, 2018; Smith, Fischer and Yongjian, 2012). Twitter is beneficial because the information distributed can spread to broader observers. It is accessible via different means; content can be broadcasted instantly, allowing networking with other users. In addition, Twitter is user-friendly, considering that the short broadcasting of content enables a maximum of 280 characters and is, therefore, straightforward to peruse and not burdensome to comprehend.

4.2.3 WhatsApp

WhatsApp Inc was created and then instituted in 2009 by Brian Acton and Jan Koum, both experts of Yahoo (Sahu, 2014). The Facebook company purchased WhatsApp in 2014 (Karpisek, Baggili and Breitinger, 2015). The platform affords sharing of content and interaction through pictures, audio and video files, and messages. Additionally, the updated WhatsApp application enables communication via video, audio and collective calls. Sahu (2014) illustrates how users utilize the operation of WhatsApp: First, to use WhatsApp, the simple prerequisites have a phone or device, internet connection, and storage capacity to download WhatsApp. Second, when WhatsApp is installed on a device, it generates an operator account using the username and phone number. Third, WhatsApp then mechanically synchronizes all the contacts from the user's contact list on the device used with its integrated catalogue of WhatsApp consumers to connect with phone numbers and to the user's WhatsApp communication directory. WhatsApp is popular because it is accessible on numerous devices.

It is cost-effective, provides unrestricted interaction and instant communication, and enables users to communicate privately or in a group.

4.2.4 Instagram

Instagram is a video and photo-sharing social media platform founded by Kevin Systrom and Mike Krieger (Sengupta, Perlroth and Wortham, 2012). The site, launched in 2010, allows consumers to promptly share their mobile photos into visually likeable pictures, which are then distributed to others on the site and other social networking sites (Salomon, 2013). In reaction to the increasing approval rate, in 2013, Instagram was enhanced, and the proficiency to share short videos was introduced (Salomon, 2013). According to Wilkinson (2018), the Facebook company purchased Instagram in 2012. Since then, Instagram has been enhanced by making it user-friendly to share and navigate its content. The widespread use of Instagram is its capabilities to carry out live streaming and share pictures and videos.

4.3 Social media user statistics

Social media has progressed to become popular amongst the global community. Recent statistics revealed that more than 3.6 billion people were utilizing social media in 2020, estimated to reach 4.41 billion in 2025 (Statista, 2021a). Popular social media sites related to this study include Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter and Instagram. In 2021 Facebook reached 1.88 billion daily active users and 2.85 billion monthly active users (Facebook, 2021). WhatsApp (2020) noted that it had reached two billion global users. In the context of monetizable daily active users, Twitter had 206 million consumers in the latest 2021 approximations (Statista 2021b). Estimates noted in 2018 indicate that Instagram's monthly active users had reached 1 billion (Statista, 2021c). The above figures illustrate how social media has become a central feature of the global community.

4.4 Social media definitions and functions

The definitions of the term social media have shown that it is a wide-ranging and progressive concept. There are different meanings and numerous interpretations of the social media concept in the research, debates, and discussions. Consequently, the literature on social media indicates that the concept's meaning has interconnecting understandings and is defined and interpreted differently. Accordingly, the growing body of literature on social media employs various definitions (Ouirdi et al., 2014). The definition of social media has its roots in computer-supported social networks (CSSNs) (Wellman et al., 1996), social networks (Garton et al.,

1997), virtual communities (Sridhar Balasubramanian, 2001; Hagel, 1999; Ridings et al., 2002), social networking services (SNS) (Marwick, 2005), online social network (Acquisti and Gross, 2006), social networking site (SNS) (Boyd and Ellison, 2007; Ellison and Boyd, 2013; Hughes et al., 2012; Joinson, 2008; O'Murchu et al., 2004; Sledgianowski and Kulviwat, 2009). The above was founded on electronic, online, computer-related, social, interactive, content creation/distribution, communal and networking platforms.

The earliest acknowledged use of the phrase is indicated by Darrell Berry, a self-portrayed hacker/strategist/social media researcher/writer and photographer (Bercovici, 2010). He noted that he started utilizing the term in 1994 to generate an online media environment named Matisse while based in Tokyo (Bercovici, 2010). In 1995, Darrell Berry scripted writing on "social media spaces," postulating that the internet had to advance from what was then basically a fixed collection of documents into a network of users connecting/interacting amongst themselves (Bercovici, 2010). Additionally, the use of 'social media' in print is assumed to have transpired in 1997, when then America Online (AOL) executive Ted Leonsis remarked that organizations ought to afford customers with "social media, places where they can be entertained, communicate, and participate in a social environment" (Bercovici, 2010; Treem and Leonardi, 2013: 144). This description was significant because social media provides platforms where customers can be amused, interconnect, interact, and partake in a social setting. In addition, it gave the sense of the need for consumers to engage in social networking. Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) noted misunderstandings among executives and academic scholars alike regarding what to classify as part of the term social media and how it varies from the compatible and connected models of Web 2.0 and User Generated Content. This contestation is evident in various definitions and descriptions of social media.

Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) postulate that most online applications related to social media give a sort of awareness of what it is. However, a recognized and widely used meaning of the phrase primarily entails unpacking two interrelated concepts: User Generated Content and Web 2.0 (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). First, Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) note that Web 2.0 is a phrase that was initially applied in 2004 to illustrate a novel method in which software developers and end-users began to employ the World Wide Web. Meaning as a platform in which content and applications progress from being generated and availed by individuals to constantly adapted by all users in a participatory and collective approach (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Second, they argue that Web 2.0 was central to the development of Social Media. Third, they note that Web

2.0 denotes the conceptual and technological basis of social media or User Generated Content (UGC). And can be viewed as the totality of all methods in which users utilize Social Media. The phrase attained wide-ranging approval in 2005 and is generally used to define the numerous types of media content openly obtainable or accessible and generated by end-users (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010).

Therefore, two things are essential to the above description of social media: Web 2.0 and User Generated Content. Similarly, the emergence of Web 2.0 expertise resulted in the development and advancement of social media. In some cases, Web 2.0 and social media are interpreted loosely and interchangeably (Berthon et al., 2012; Ahmed et al., 2019). Tess (2013) argues that defining social media is problematic because it is continuously evolving; for example, social network sites that fall under the social media category frequently introduce new, advanced or improved features. Social media has expanded and is now being used on gadgets like tablets, mobile cellphones, or smartphones. Russo et al. (2008) posit that the meaning of social media is generally a platform that enables online interaction, networking, and association. In addition, they also note that social media technologies are aimed mainly at network interaction instruments. Social software, social networking and Web 2.0 are other expressions used to refer to apparatuses and platforms that facilitate related user communication (Russo et al., 2008).

According to Mangold and Faulds (2009:358), social media consist of a variety of internet, oral platforms comprising of blogs, corporation-backed interaction boards and dialogue rooms, users-to-users e-mail, customer merchandise or service evaluations platforms and forums, online dialogue boards and forums, moblogs (platforms comprising digital audio, pictures, videos or snapshots), and social networking platforms, among others. In the backdrop of the explanations on Web 2.0 and User Generated Content, Kaplan and Haenlein (2010:61) define social media by stating that:

> Social Media is a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0 and allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content.

Kietzmann et al. (2011) assert that social media is a honeycomb of seven functional construction blocks: groups, reputation, relationships, presence, sharing, conversations and identity. Gikas and Grant (2013) and Greenhow (2011) posit that generally, social media comprises social networking sites, like Twitter, LinkedIn and Facebook, then media sharing

sites, like Flickr and YouTube, as well as formation and publishing platforms like blogs and wikis, plus aggregation and republishing via RSS feeds, lastly reproducing of content and republishing instruments. Leung (2013) argues that social media consists of various modes, comprising web-based and mobile technologies, like social networking sites (SNSs), email, internet forums, vlogs, microblogs, blogs, voiceover IP and wikis. Additionally, Leonardi (2014) notes that the social media apparatus consists of social networking platforms, wikis, microblogs and blogs. McIntyre (2014) describes social media as a computer-mediated interaction and messaging platform.

Zeng and Gerritsen (2014) provide three points to summarize the features and qualities of social media found in the literature. They include the following: (a) social media are internet apparatuses, applications, sites and media, and as a result, rely on information technology. (b) social media are the counterpart to counterpart interaction networks, which allows the interactive online information conception, cooperation and exchange by users. Features which present ample and widespread modifications to the interaction between establishments, societies and persons. (c) social media connect consumers to create an online community by utilizing cross-platforms and, for that reason, impact human actions and real life. Other scholars (Bayer, Triệu and Ellison, 2020: 473; Carr and Hayes, 2015:8) generally defined social media as 'Internet-based', 'disentrained'[3], and relentless passages of sizeable personal interaction enabling insights of communications among users, obtaining its worth mainly from user-generated content. They also explicitly characterized social media as internet-based avenues that allow users to communicate opportunistically and be picky about self-presentation. Either instantaneous or asynchronously, with more comprehensive and limited audiences who gain value from user-generated content and the view of communication with others (Bayer, Triệu and Ellison, 2020; Carr and Hayes, 2015).

Search on social media indicates that it is associated with or has the same descriptions with phrases like "social computing", "social networking sites", "Web 2.0", "blogs", "online communities", and "virtual communities" (Ngai, Tao and Moon, 2015: 34). Miller et al. (2016) described social media as the colonization of the space between traditional broadcast and private dyadic interaction, affording users with a degree of group scope and levels of privacy

[3] Channel disentrainment is interaction enabled by a specific platform in which the sites are constantly available whether the consumers are offline or online (Bayer, Triệu and Ellison, 2020; Carr and Hayes, 2015).

that they term scalable sociality. Social media comprise online platforms such as microblogging, social networking sites and blogs (Treem et al., 2016). Leyrer-Jackson and Wilson (2018) describe social media as websites and technological applications that allow consumers to distribute content and partake in social networking.

Kapoor et al. (2018) posit that social media is comprised of numerous user-driven sites that facilitate the distribution of compelling content, interaction formation, and communication to a broader audience. They added that it is a digital space generated by the people and for the people and affords a setting that is helpful for interactions and networking to happen at diverse levels, for example, for societal, political, marketing, business, professional and personal. Bishop (2019) defines social media as an online platform that enables engagement between persons. Consequently, Aichner et al. (2021) posit that social media are not only social networks such as Facebook but also comprise virtual worlds, video sharing, social gaming, social bookmarking, photo sharing, forums, product/services reviews, collaborative projects, business networks, enterprise social networks, blogs and microblogs.

4.5 Types of Social media/social networking sites

Social networking sites

Social media classification comprises social networking sites, blogs, content communities, collaborative projects, virtual social worlds and virtual games worlds (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010) (Table 2). Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) posit that social networking sites are applications that allow consumers to link by generating personal material profiles, welcoming allies, companions, relatives and associates to view their profiles, and interacting via electronic mailing and instant communication between each other. Likewise, Boyd and Ellison (2007) describe social network sites are web-based platforms. The web-based platforms enable consumers to make public or semi-public profiles on particular sites, indicate a list of fellow users they are connected to, and see and navigate the catalogue of connections and other connections made by users of the same site (Boyd and Ellison, 2007). ‘‘Networking’’ emphasize linkage or association instigation, usually amongst people who do not know each other (Boyd and Ellison, 2007). On social media sites, a profile is created and generally comprises a profile photo, likes, hobbies, location and short biography; however, the functions differ with each social media site (Boyd and Ellison, 2007). In addition, on social networking

sites, shared data also consists of blogs, pictures, video and audio files (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010).

Table 2. Classification of social media by social presence/media richness and self-presentation/self-disclosure

		Social presence/Media richness		
		Low	**Medium**	**High**
Self-presentation/ Self-disclosure	**High**	Blogs	Social Networking Sites (e.g., Facebook)	Virtual Social Worlds (e.g., Second Life)
	Low	Collaborative projects (e.g., Wikipedia)	Content Communities (e.g., YouTube)	Virtual games worlds (e.g., World of WarCraft)

Source: Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010:62

Social networking sites are distinctive because they allow consumers to generate and reveal profiles with personal information and assist and support the noticeability of online social connections. Boyd and Ellison (2007: 213) note that other standard functionality of social networking sites includes characterization of connections as ‘‘Contacts,’’ ‘‘Friends,’’ ‘‘Fans’’. And to be in connection, some social networking sites involve compulsory bi-directional approval for friendship or networking; others do not have this function (Boyd and Ellison, 2007. The one-directional connections are sometimes categorized as ‘‘Followers’’ or ‘‘Fans,’’ but numerous platforms also illustrate these as Friends (Boyd and Ellison, 2007: 213). Social network sites include platforms like Instagram, YouTube, Facebook, Wikis, Linked In, Twitter, and blogs (Ghani et al., 2019). Aichner et al. (2021) note that social media is not exclusively about social networking sites. But also consist of blogs, business networks, collaborative projects, enterprise social networks, forums, microblogs, photo sharing, product/service reviews, social bookmarking, social gaming, video sharing and virtual worlds (Aichner et al., 2021).

Blogs

Lee and Trimi (2008: 113) note that in 1997, John Barger, a blog innovator, devised the word ‘Weblog’, abridged to blog, and the definition he provided was that it is “A Web page where a Weblogger ‘logs’ all the other Web pages [he/] she finds interesting”. Subsequently, the notion of ‘dated entries’ was attached to Barger’s description by outlining blogs as “a site with dated entries, usually by a single author, often by links to the weblogs the site’s editor visits regularly”

(Lears, 2003 in Lee and Trimi, 2008: 113). Similarly, Aichner and Jacob (2015) posit that a blog, derived from the words 'web' and 'log', is a sequential catalogue of broadcast content that audiences and viewers can observe, peruse, and remark. Blogs are more like online journals or diaries and are operated by a person/s to share subjective or professional views, for example, WordPress, Live Journal, The Huffington Post and Boing Boing (Aichner and Jacob, 2015; Eckler, Worsowicz and Rayburn, 2010).

Table 3: Types of social media with examples

	Examples	
Type of social media	**Name**	**Website**
Blogs	The Huffington Post; Boing Boing	huffingtonpost.com; boingboing.net
Business networks	LinkedIn; XING	linkedin.com; xing.com
Collaborative projects	Wikipedia; Mozilla	wikipedia.org; mozilla.org
Enterprise social networks	Yammer; Socialcast	yammer.com; socialcast.com
Forums	Gaia Online; IGN Boards	gaiaonline.com; ign.com/boards
Microblogs	Twitter; Tumblr	twitter.com; tumblr.com
Photo sharing	Flickr; Photobucket	flickr.com; photobucket.com
Products/services review	Amazon; Elance	amazon.com; elance.com
Social bookmarking	Delicious; Pinterest	delicious.com; pinterest.com
Social gaming	World of Warcraft; Mafia Wars	warcarft.com; mafiawars.com
Social networks	Facebook; Google+	facebook.com; plus.google.com
Video sharing	YouTube; Vimeo	youtube.com; vimeo.com
Virtual worlds	Second Life Twinity	secondlife.com; twinity.com

Aichner and Jacob (2015: 259)

Other types of social media

In the context of the above table 3, Aichner and Jacob (2015: 259 – 260) summarise the types and descriptions of social media: (a) Business networks: people utilize business links to create and sustain professional connections. Registered consumers generate a personal profile and

share personal information like the nature and length of their schooling, professional experience and proficient facts. Corporations utilize professional connections to mainly locate themselves as an employer and seek out potential workforces or specialists. (b) Enterprise social networks: Enterprise social networks are accessible for entry merely to employees of a particular organization or category, providing parallel structures as social links, comprising characteristics like personal profiles and profile photographs. Organizations intend to make sure that their staffs are aware of each other and trade practices and viewpoints—this aids in escalating the competence of information management within the organization.

Next, (c) Forums: A forum is a virtual interaction online site where consumers may request and/or respond to other consumers' enquiries and discuss views, sentiments or practices. Interaction does not occur in real-time, such as in a chat; however, there is time belated and typically observable and accessible by anyone. (d) Microblogs: Microblogs limit the size of broadcasted information to roughly 200 characters, which can be the leading cause of their admiration. Shared information can consist of images or weblinks; consumers may subscribe to news from other consumers, organizations, products or famous personalities. (e) Photo Sharing: Photo-sharing platforms present amenities like sharing, broadcasting, handling, and distributing pictures or images. Regularly, the photographs or images may be modified, adjusted or amended online, arranged in folders and remarked by other consumers. (f) Products/services review: Product and service reviewing platforms retail and offer facts about products. Consumers may appraise products or particular features such as product quality and remark or browse product reviews.

Then (g) Social bookmarking: Social bookmarking refers to the notion of saving and arranging to organize online bookmarks at a consolidated site to share them with associates and other consumers. Social bookmarks are an essential pointer for widely known platforms and additional online information. (h) Social gaming: Social games are online games that permit or necessitate social communication between users, for example, card or multiplayer games. (i) Video sharing: Video-sharing sites permit consumers to post and distribute personal, professional or royalty-free videos and to view them lawfully. The majority of the platforms provide the prospect to remark on particular videos. Organizations utilize social media to broadcast or distribute advertisements, assess unconventional marketing videos, or save expenses, which are much lesser equated to Television marketing. Lastly, (j) Virtual World: Virtual worlds are utilised mainly by consumers who can generate a personal avatar,

concurrently and autonomously delve into the virtual world, partake in its undertakings, or interconnect with others. Unlike computer games, time carries on even when the consumer is logged out. Virtual worlds generally utilize virtual currencies, which have an absolute value, and permit organizations to retail virtual or actual merchandise.

4.6 Social media and development

Central to social media and development is development communication linked to Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs). Developing countries have intensely enhanced access and utilization of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) (May and Diga, 2015). Correspondingly, ICT optimists consider modern technologies to have progressive/developmental influences like wealth generation and better service provision (May, Waema and Bjåstad, 2014). Roy (2015), in the research on opportunities of social media for development communication, argues that in line with development issues, the essential drive for human interaction is to comprehend realism for the sake of accomplishing objectives and choosing additional successive aims. Development communication may be utilized for development purposes; therefore, it pays particular attention to communication that transforms or advances an individual's livelihood that belongs to a specific nation or location (Roy, 2015). In this context, social media platforms provide tools that can accelerate the course of expansion and growth. The developmental impact of social media is on its ability to provide communication capabilities of information distribution and two-way transmission of views and facts between development practitioners and various communities.

Additionally, in some instances, ICTs have been positioned as essential in poverty alleviation founded on their prospective usefulness in expanding the incomes of the poor and improving general national social and economic development (May, Waema and Bjåstad, 2014). Along similar lines, Nicholson, Nugroho, and Rangaswamy (2016) cite Sein and Harindranath (2004) in arguing that narratives in the connotation of development concerning the Information Communication Technology (ICT) for development research and discussions have paid attention to three focal thoughts, to be precise: modernization, dependency and human development. Nicholson, Nugroho, and Rangaswamy (2016) to begin with posit that the fundamental notion in modernization is that development is related to the investment in a market economy, and the essential significance is that the investment affords societies beyond ordinary subsistence, like beyond simply adequate for consumption and inhabit in a

shantytown. They added that development, comprehended from this viewpoint, put people in an accumulation course of action.

Secondly, they assert that the dependency dialogue suggests that economic progress in developed nations causes the underdevelopment of developing countries, primarily former colonies, that can be imperilled to undesirable technological, trade and industrial reliance conditions. Lastly, they emphasize that the human development dialogue is attentive to fostering capabilities and apprehending individual prospective with persons at the epicentre of the development practice socially, economically, politically and environmentally. Thus, according to them, individuals can increasingly devote themselves to an enhanced livelihood. They added that individuals could also develop the features of their environment, attain additional cutting-edge tools, have straightforward admission to employment means, and provide broader contributions to political affairs and decision-making procedures.

Social media for development is mainly associated with human development. According to Nugroho and Rangaswamy (2016), social media may be progressive in human development. Thus, social media can elevate human beings' proficiencies, expand and meritoriously develop their livelihoods, and apply civil and political rights (Nugroho and Rangaswamy, 2016). Therefore, people can use social media to access various information, data and needs by enabling social connections and linking with friends, relatives, colleagues, contacts, and socio-economic and political actors. Social media platforms have a lot of capabilities and can foster essential principles for communities and how they cooperate amongst themselves and impact how policymakers and community leaders operate. In addition, social media affords tools that the general public can utilize for robust engagement, contribution and interaction with politicians or community leaders. Social media has the power to quickly, instantly and massively increase the dissemination of data, facts, thoughts, procedures, beliefs and customs that fortify progressive transformation.

Noteworthy, social media can provide platforms where people are visible and utilized as an instrument for planning, managing, leading and controlling diverse socio-economic and political activities. Social media also offer platforms where individuals or groups can contribute, generate, distribute, publish or broadcast content on various development agendas. It is worth mentioning that social media is vital in addressing sustainable development goals (SDGs). Because for any development agenda to succeed, there is a necessity for robust information flow. Social media has the tools for communication among policymakers

themselves, within civilians and between civilians and policymakers. In communicating and discussing developmental agendas, social media can empower the stakeholders involved by providing apparatuses that can be used to make and share audio files, video files, photos, texts, internet links, and documents useful in development programs.

In the same context, Akashraj and Pushpa (2014) first, in their article on the role of social media on development, argue that for growth to occur, there is a necessity for a robust instrument to network people promptly or in real-time for information transmission that is never stopping and immediate. Second, they posit that media for development is utilized for communicating ideas on topics like community development, poverty alleviation, principled governance, environmental safeguarding, health care, and socio-economic and cultural development. Third, from their investigation, it is established that social media can be a blessing to the development of the economy in fostering professional links and amassing knowledge by using the data or expertise linked to modern and groundbreaking matters in social connections. Therefore, social media is a noticeable channel used by civilians and governments to share content, ideas, and civic consciousness and participation. It is an operational and valuable tool to assist and influence community programs and dogmas.

Correspondingly, Shang and Ghrig (2018), in their research which explored social media analytics on community development practices, posit that social media and social networks have progressed. Social media have become a noteworthy community development instrument to get extensive attention from various people, disseminate data and material in real-time, expand interactions and foster associations (Shang and Ghrig, 2018). They argue that practitioners can dynamically participate in community development and deal with community matters with data gathered from social media. In addition, they note that in social media spaces, data and content can be widely distributed and foster more openness, freedom of expression and liability, which may strengthen faith and conviction in community affiliates. At the centre of the developmental impact of social media are information and communications technology (ICT) and mobile technology. The prevalent global utilization of information and communications technology (ICT) and mobile technologies has become developmental in the last decade, particularly in the developing world or the global south.

Ojo, Janowski, and Awotwi (2013) argue that, first, by way of being a tool, information and communications technology can function as labour replacements and enhancers of efficiency and social affairs. Second, they posit that by being a proxy, information and communications

technology can represent dynamism, innovation, modernism, or other required abilities by its users. Third, they note that, by way of being an element, information and communications can be a portion of a sizeable social, political-economic or technical structure and function as a technological program, algorithm, archetypal or system. Information and communications technology (ICT) and mobile technology have provided the tools for the robust and efficient use of social media through mobile applications, mobile and internet usage that diverse communities in the developed world can access, and more critical in the developing world or global south. In the context of the above, the position of this thesis concurs with the optimistic views that social media and Information and communications technologies (ICTs) have a positive developmental role to play in the socio-economic and political transformation of the global community.

4.7 Social media critique

4.7.1 Social media privacy concerns

The intersection between social media and privacy risks has developed to become a concern for social media users. Rønn and Søe (2019) argue that swift technological progress and the appearance of social media are the bases for the robust connection between personal information and privacy, consequently recognized as informational privacy. Informational privacy entails proficiency in regulating/managing access to confidential information (Rønn and Søe (2019). The issue of personal data and informational privacy has become a big concern for social media platforms. The threat of privacy infringement on social media has constantly grown since social media platforms were developed to be accessed on mobile device applications (apps), where a substantial volume of detectible information is archived, accumulated, and connected on various media sites (Chen, 2018). Informational privacy denotes the capacity to regulate who collects and distributes personal data of an individual or personal group in any situation (Van Der Velden and El Emam, 2013). Therefore, the gathering and distributing of personal or private data should be respected and protected.

Social media can afford people assistance on interaction, entertainment and data; social media furthermore store vast storage of personal information resulting in huge alarm regarding privacy (Chen, 2018). Social media has grown into an important platform that users use daily and mainly as a reliable networking tool. However, social media also has shortcomings, leading to much criticism. Thus, social media has been criticized for its privacy concerns. Privacy is

about regulating or controlling as the central issue in influencing privacy, merging the idea of privacy with control (Chung et al., 2021). Privacy entails personal information that an individual expresses or reveals and involves what others say or divulge about the individual (Such and Criado, 2018). Therefore, social media users must review or comprehend the privacy terms and conditions for informed changes in privacy controls on social media.

Privacy concern is a determinant of data privacy, and it involves the users' worries about how social media websites use and safeguard personal data privacy (Chung et al., 2021). Social media platforms in privacy are criticized for lack of informed consent regarding sharing private user data with third parties. The ownership of online content is still an area of great contestation and debate, primarily whether social media users or companies own online content. Such and Criado (2018) posit privacy entails what a person and consumer on social media reveal and encompasses the information that the user's friends can tell about the user. Similarly, the infringement of informational privacy may be a breach of decisional privacy if, for example, the absence of regulation on one's information impacts and obstructs one's prospects for decision-making and choices (Rønn and Søe (2019). Therefore, informational privacy in site settings is an interrogation of safeguarding against illicit access to and using personal information (Rønn and Søe, 2019). Personal or private data protection is essential because it restricts unauthorized third parties or cyber-criminals' access to this information.

Additionally, safeguarding informational privacy comprises controlling access to personal information or regulating the movement of personal data (Rønn and Søe, 2019). Despite social media's undisputable accomplishments, privacy concerns have recently been growing (Misra and Such, 2016). Furthermore, Misra and Such (2016) argue that specific uneasiness originates from distributing personal information to inadvertent followers. For instance, social media sites regard a consumer's "friends" the same way and do not distinguish between professional associates and close friends (Misra and Such, 2016). The other sensitive information accessible to a broad audience on social media include location, subject matter, and period (Misra and Such, 2016). Moreover, Misra and Such (2016) posit that privacy settings primarily utilize the privacy likings of the consumer creating the post. Thus, when an impacted consumer desires to delete the post, the user must consult with the poster through other interaction methods like private communication, texts or email (Misra and Such, 2016).

But dialogues to delete the undesired content may occur after the content has been shared and when privacy infringement has happened (Misra and Such, 2016). However, Chen (2018) argues that although privacy infringement is a massive worry for social media consumers, evidence in the literature indicates the occurrence of the privacy paradox. Chen (2018) notes that the privacy paradox signifies inconsistencies where social media users reveal their data, yet at the same time, they are worried about privacy infringement. Chen (2018) asserts that when social media users are concerned about their privacy and have assurance in their capacity to control their social media, they can actively perform steps to reduce profile outlook. For instance, altering the privacy settings of their profiles, removing content or untagging pictures. Then they would probably reveal personal data and magnify their networking on social media (Chen, 2018). The intervening part of reducing profile outlook may assist in bridging the space between personal exposure and privacy worries in the privacy paradox (Chen, 2018). Reducing profile visibility and limiting users' sharing of confidential or private information is significant for safeguarding personal data from illicit access.

Noteworthy is the aspect of multiparty privacy which involves data concerning numerous persons and the disputes that occur when the privacy preferences of the persons in consideration vary (Such and Criado, 2016; Such and Criado, 2018). Multiparty privacy disputes on social media have extensively intensified due to the capacity of social media where content posted on the sites can be co-owned by numerous persons (Such and Criado, 2018). Also notable on social media is the flow of extensive information, primarily personal and generated by users (Such and Criado, 2018). The flow of information strikingly requires applicable privacy protection procedures on social media that are valuable to consumers and, at the same time, sufficiently safeguard users' personal data (Such and Criado, 2018). Alternatively, since social media users have inadequate control of their private information, social media consumers need to limit the information they share on social media.

The connection between privacy settings and tagging on social media is also a big concern. For example, Such and Criado (2018) argue that problems may arise when social media consumers share content such as pictures and tag other consumers. For instance, not tagging all the persons recognizable in a picture or erroneously tagging persons who essentially are not in the photo (Such and Criado, 2018)., Face detecting software can be utilized to address the challenges of tagging. For example, Facebook has established face detection technology that identifies Facebook users' faces in a picture (Such and Criado, 2018). However, the possible risks of

face detection technology include privacy invasion, misidentification, incorrect face detection and unrelated tagging (Such and Criado, 2018). Therefore, face detection technology on social media should be used with consent, and consumers must be informed on how the data gathered is used or if their data is accessible to any third parties.

Many consumers on social media are regularly critical of mainstream sites for making complex privacy settings available (Such and Rovatsos, 2016). The social media privacy settings are complicated because they are problematic to comprehend, involve time-consuming manual operation, and do not afford proper privacy controls (Such and Rovatsos, 2016). Social media's complex nature can complicate privacy settings and be detrimental to users. For instance, Such and Rovatsos (2016) assert that social media's complexity and privacy settings can be problematic to users. For example, social media has resulted in several occurrences of unfitting communication of personal information that resulted in individuals to experienced cyberbullying, losing court litigations, and dismissal from occupations (Such and Rovatsos, 2016). Therefore, individuals generally sign-up for social media to follow the trend of social media popularity; however, the users then limitedly partake on social media because of the inability to control their privacy (Such and Rovatsos, 2016). Social media platforms should actively and regularly inform users on the practical/safest way to share their content or information and, at the same time, make it flexible for users to control privacy settings.

Pierson (2012) posit that the query on social media use is the degree to which users have the knowledge and are adequately or satisfactorily conscious of shifting privacy and surveillance facets. For example, online actions are observed, scrutinized, administered, evaluated and consumerized by third parties (Pierson, 2012). Similarly, Fox and Royne (2018) first note that it is vague whether users comprehend that social media companies utilize their private data like name, birthday and contact details. Second, they argue that the lack of consumer privacy is alarming, considering that social media platforms gather user information for their private usage and share and trade it to third parties in the context of making a profit. Distributing personal information to third parties without consumers' consent violates data protection and privacy. More laws should be implemented to guarantee the safety and security of consumers' information.

Such and Criado (2018) note that safeguarding consumers' privacy is crucial to comply with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Protecting consumers' privacy also assists as the

first line of protection to alleviate cybercrime and other unlawful undertakings that control the information acquired through social media privacy infringements, like cyberbullying, cyberstalking, identity theft and social phishing (Such and Criado, 2018). Informed consent is vital when focusing on the enquiry of informational privacy on social media sites (Rønn and Søe, 2019). Consumers provide the particular platforms with their consent to let the social media platforms retrieve and utilize their personal information on the specific site (Rønn and Søe (2019). Informed consent and data protection should address the alarming lack of clear and detailed issues on consumer privacy like user data usage, third-party sharing of information, marketing and advertising.

4.7.2 Social media security concerns

The privacy concerns on social media are also related to security concerns. For instance, the private information such as identity, profile, location, dependency or suspicion and relationships provided by users on social media can be noticeable, and, therefore, users end up being sternly susceptible to possible dangers like maltreatment by governments, direct scams, robbery and burglary (Beigi and Liu, 2020). Boyd (2013) also shows the security concerns in using social media, for example, young people encountering sexual predators and other unsettling individuals on social media. It is complicated and problematic for social media platforms to control what users share or disclose online, considering that the information is shared for diverse personal reasons, in line with the conditions and terms of social media companies. Identity disclosure by social media companies is also a challenge.

Identity disclosure involves disclosing users' personal details such as profile, age, user identification and location data divulged erroneously or purposefully for promotion and marketing (Beigi and Liu, 2020). It is observable that social media platforms have privacy and security tools; however, they are not enough, considering that not all users can operate the tools, and there are still loopholes like possible hacking and identity theft. Social media companies should increase their online security to address the issue of identity theft and hacking, where information of social media users is hacked and acquired by anonymous individuals for criminal intentions.

4.7.3 Social media fake news

Fake news description

Social Media has also been criticized for providing a platform for spreading fake news. Various fake news narratives are based on anonymous or misleading sources (Kim, Moravec and

Dennis, 2019). Fake news is an incorrect or fabricated explanation of unwanted information because it misrepresents persons' opinions and causes misled judgements (Gaozhao, 2021; Di Domenico et al., 2021; Rampersad and Althiyabi, 2020; Lazer et al., 2018). Fake news is perceived as false facts comprising folklores, anecdotes, conspiracy theories, deceptions and illusory or flawed content deliberately or involuntarily distributed on social media (Apuke and Omar, 2021). Various phrases are interchangeable to refer to fake news (Jahng, 2021). Such as propaganda, media manipulation, misinformation, alternative facts and disinformation (Jahng, 2021). Also, the phrase fake news is associated with the distribution of conspiracy theories (Al-Rawi, 2019).

The phrase 'fake news' has been used for roughly a century; however, recently, it has gained reinstated attention from journalists and media intellectuals, primarily because of the abrupt increase of hoaxes disseminated on the internet (Bali and Desai, 2019). Additionally, Bali and Desai (2019) assert that fake news entails hoaxing narratives and news generated to mislead or misinform audiences or promote a political motive. Fake news involves news carried purposefully, proved to be deceitful, and distributed extensively and speedily among social media consumers (Liu and Wu, 2020). In recent literature, fake news is described as false information presented to appear as news to intentionally misinform (Tandoc, Lim and Ling, 2020). Deliberately untrue information is fake news (Shu, Mahudeswaran and Liu, 2019). Also, as a particular form of misinformation, fake news entails false information distributed intentionally to mislead persons (Shu, Mahudeswaran and Liu, 2019). Allcott and Gentzkow (2017) describe fake news as content that is purposely and validated as untrue and can misinform audiences.

Fake news entails fictitious narratives, most regularly intended to charm ample opinions and possibly influence public perspectives (Carlson, 2020). In addition, fake news involves false accounts with no foundation in broadcasting (Carlson, 2020). The attention to the creation of fake news is mainly founded on the source/transmitters of fake news as deceitful and tainting the information environment (Carlson, 2020). Lazer et al. (2018) describe fake news as false information that imitates media content creation but does not follow organizational procedures or motives. Therefore, considering the various definitions and descriptions of fake news, it entails information or news that is fake, untrue, false, deceitful, deceiving, fabricated, incorrect, fictitious, misrepresentation or misinformation.

Generally, ‘news’ has a writer/source; a reporter is responsible for providing truthfully and substantiated news to the audience (Collins et al., 2021). On the contrary, fake news has no writer/source, but journalists are authorized to provide news or are employed at news organizations (Collins et al., 2021). Yet, bogus sources on social media are self-employed and spread fake news for monetary benefits (Collins et al., 2021). Research has provided diverse descriptions of fake news, such as news as satire and as a derogatory to confront truthful commentary; there is an increasing liking for the word disinformation to refer to fake news (Van Heekeren, 2020). Notably, research utilizing the word fake news regularly utilizes the matching favoured description as the same used to refer to disinformation which is the deliberate creation and publishing of fabricated information put forward as news intended to mislead for political or monetary benefit (Van Heekeren, 2020). In addition, Van Heekeren (2020) also reveals the connection between ‘fake news’ and other previous phrases such as ‘false news’ and ‘faked news’. Thus, fake news is misleading and falsified news intended to deceive people.

Characteristics of fake news

Shu et al. (2017) assert that fake news is purposely generated to misinform audiences into trusting untrue content, which results in problematic and nontrivial identification founded on news information. Thus, there is a necessity to include supplementary content, like consumer social actions on social media, to assist and bring about a determination (Shu et al., 2017). Also, exploiting the supplementary content is problematic because consumers’ social actions with fake news create immense, inadequate, disorderly, and loud information (Shu et al., 2017). Also, with fake news sources, there is an absence of the news media’s editorial standards and procedures for guaranteeing the truthfulness and reliability of information (Collins et al., 2021). Similarly, Lazer et al. (2018) argue that fake news channels do not have the news media’s reporting measures and practices to safeguard the content's validity and reliability. The lack of regulations or guidelines for fake news sources makes it problematic to enforce accountability and responsibility, making the fake news channels not fear prosecution or limit their actions.

Furthermore, fake news corresponds with other content disarrays, like misinformation (untrue or deceptive content) and disinformation (untrue content that is deliberately distributed to mislead persons) (Lazer et al., 2018). Contrasting the traditional media such as radio, television and newspaper, social media has steered a new development in the news identified as ‘fake news’ where spiteful or deceptive information is speedily distributed (Collins et al., 2021). Shu

and Liu (2019) argue that social media assists in extensively disseminating fake news with deliberately untrue information. Social media platforms afford their users the resourceful and instant distribution of content; consequently, users can distribute the misrepresented material at a rapid pace (Aldwairi and Alwahedi, 2018). Fake news on social networking sites has become dangerous for the global community because of the misinformed impact on socio-economic and political issues. Dishonesties and fake news can probably subsist and thrive in any situation on social media, be it social networking platforms, image and video sharing services, social live streaming sites, microblogging services or weblogs (Zimmer et al., 2019). The increasing approval of social media has led to people being primarily subjected to an overabundance of fake news (Collins et al., 2021). Social media facilitates speedy and widespread information like fake news because it is easily accessible, flexible and affords multi-dimensional communication. For example, fake news can spread through social media sites and formats or multi-media they support, such as audio, video, voice and pictures.

The utilization of social media for accessing news is two-sided; on one side, it is inexpensive, easily reachable, and affords the speedy distribution of information, resulting in persons searching and accessing news from social media (Shu et al., 2017). Conversely, it facilitates the extensive distribution of fake and low-quality news with deliberately untrue content (Shu et al., 2017). Al-Rawi (2019) asserts that social media, to be specific, has enriched the dissemination of fake news because of its fundamental shareability and linking characteristics. And that fake news has the probability of destabilizing democracy. Additionally, fake news can significantly influence actual happenings (Shu et al., 2020). Furthermore, Shu, Mahudeswaran and Liu (2019) posit that some persons and institutions utilize social media as an instrument to disseminate fake news for political or monetary benefits.

For example, fabricated political stories can lead to tension and violence among the supporters of political opponents. Social media has progressively facilitated the extensive spread of fake news, and noteworthy is the spread of misinformation for the duration of the 2016 United States (US) presidential elections (Clayton et al., 2020). The purposefully fabricated or deceptive narratives may compromise the democratic purpose of a knowledgeable body of voters (Clayton et al., 2020). Similarly, Spohr (2017) also argues that fake news narratives could impact democratic practices intentionally because they are misrepresented and deceitful. For instance, fake news can mobilize and mislead people and influence violence and other unlawful activities.

Recently, fake news has mainly gained focus in political environments, but it has also been acknowledged in content disseminated about stock rates, nutrition, and vaccination (Lazer et al., 2018). It is predominantly malicious in that it is like a parasite on regular news channels while gaining from and damaging their trustworthiness (Lazer et al., 2018). Fake news impacts people and communities (Shu et al., 2020). Thus, fake news may disrupt the genuine stability of the news environment (Shu et al., 2020). Also, Shu et al. (2020) assert that fake news convinces consumers to admit untrue or prejudiced accounts. Fake news ascends in symmetry because it is inexpensive to deliver compared to accurate narratives, because audiences cannot deduce exactness costlessly, and because audiences can relish biased information (Allcott and Gentzkow, 2017).

Also, fake news can create utility for some audiences (Allcott and Gentzkow, 2017). But it additionally enacts private and social expenses by making it more challenging for audiences to deduce the correct situation of the globe, for instance, by causing it to be problematic for electorates to conclude which election contestant they favour (Allcott and Gentzkow, 2017). Shu et al. (2017) argue that it is inexpensive to deliver news online and much quicker and flexible to distribute through social media. The distribution includes vast dimensions of fake news: the news accounts with purposely untrue content created online for many intentions, like political and monetary benefit (Shu et al., 2017). Allcott and Gentzkow (2017) argue that the drivers of fake news are: (1) financial motive: news accounts that are meant to be spread on social media to attain substantial advertising returns when consumers access the original platform. (2) Ideological motive: some fake news suppliers pursue to promote political contenders they approve of. Fake news has diverse kinds and motivations. For example, a clickbait form of fake news is intended to attain attention for monetary benefit, and a politically inspired form of fake news is designed to back a runner in an election (Collins et al., 2021).

The key features of the various interpretation of fake news are authenticity and intent (Shu et al., 2017). Thus fake news is generally deliberately and proven to be untrue and can misinform people. Striking are the challenges of defining and detecting fake news. Shu et al. (2017) note a lack of consensus on the definition of ‘fake news’. Therefore, interpretations of fake news are essential to enhance prospective information on fake news detection inquiries (Shu et al., 2017). Allcott and Gentzkow (2017) argue that disseminating fake news has possible social detriments. For instance, they note that audiences who inaccurately view fake sources as

authentic have less-precise perspectives and are deficient. Also, they indicate that the less-truthful opinions can diminish constructive social externalities, destabilising the capability of the democratic practices to choose better political contenders. Furthermore, they revealed that audiences could become more distrustful of authentic news sources, making it challenging to differentiate from fake news sources. The above is concerning because fake news may disrupt the access, dissemination and comprehension of accurate news, thus interrupting the absorption and awareness of truthful news.

Moreover, these impacts can be strengthened in symmetry by source-side reactions: a lessened demand for high-accuracy, low-partiality narrating will lessen the inducements to invest in factual broadcasting and honestly account signals (Allcott and Gentzkow, 2017). Fake news accounts are instigated on numerous online platforms; for instance, some platforms are founded wholly to publish purposely fictitious and deceptive narratives (Allcott and Gentzkow, 2017). The names of the fake news platforms are usually selected to look like authentic news institutions (Allcott and Gentzkow, 2017). Collins et al. (2021) argue that in identifying fake news, it is essential to differentiate the several types of fake news, including journalistic deception, parody, satire, propaganda, hoax, clickbait and others.

Satire, parody, propaganda and clickbait

Satire and parody utilize comedy to disseminate content in showbiz (Collins et Sal., 2021). Satire uses truthful content and alters or structures it to represent something else, differing to parody; the whole narrative is utterly false (Collins et al., 2021). If somebody is unaware of such a platform, they are intended to trust the account (Collins et al., 2021). Propaganda is a type of fake news (Collins et al., 2021). While it can be traced back to wartime, propaganda was well-known in war broadcasting, where reporters regularly distributed untrue content to protect civilians from fright, particularly in the first and second world wars (Collins et al., 2021). Clickbait is a fake narrative with eye-catchy titles that attract audiences to access a link (Collins et al., 2021). Therefore, click baits are intended to be deceitful by showing funny, unusual, astonishing, or exciting content that prompts interest and lures audiences to desire additional information.

Hoaxes, journalistic deception and name theft

Then, hoaxes are purposely fictitious narratives to mislead the people or consumers (Collins et al., 2021). Journalistic deception is an additional type of fake news; journalists are authorized

to provide reliable content, but in some instances, journalists regularly alter the accounts of a particular narrative to hide the accurate account (Collins et al., 2021). Also, Collins et al. (2021) assert that name theft denotes a fake news channel that tries to steal the identity of a valid or reliable news source to mislead the consumers to trust that such content is channelled from a renowned channel. They added that this is typically performed by forming a platform that imitates a present assessable reliable news platform; for example, a creator of fake news to deceive people could utilize authentic news source platforms like cnn.com (Collins et al., 2021).

In addition, they also reveal that this is commonly undertaken with the insertion of the platform emblem, which misleads audiences into trusting that such content is sourced from the platform they presently identify as authentic. In addition, there is the manipulation of video to fit their accounts and alteration of photos known as photoshop, which is altogether intended to mislead people (Collins et al., 2021). Social media platforms have introduced a fact-checking policy to address the fake news challenge. For example, Gimpel et al. (2021) note that numerous social media companies afford their users the choice to report fake news. The false information is expertly verified, highlighted and, in some cases, deleted (Gimpel et al., 2021). But, the problem is that social media users irregularly report possible false information (Gimpel et al., 2021). Addressing fake news is still a challenge; however, there must be evidence of identifying the problem by social media service providers and implementing policies and tools that alleviate fake news.

4.7.4 Social media activism

Social media has been criticized for being a communication medium enabling various protests and other forms of activism. For example, Poell & van Dijck (2015) note that social media platforms such as Facebook, Twitter and Youtube played a significant role in information dissemination and mobilizing during the Arab Springs from 2010 – 2012. The Arab Spring entailed a sequence of events on anti-government demonstrations, revolts, and armed upheavals in the Arab region (Poell & van Dijck, 2015). Social media companies like Twitter, Parler and Facebook are also blamed for promoting illegal political activities. For example, social media sites enabled the organizing and communication of the multitude of right-wing conservatives who attacked the United States of America Capitol Hill, disturbing the congress meeting endorsing the 2020 Presidential election outcomes (Prabhu et al., 2021).

According to Greijdanus et al. (2020), social media enable online activism by letting people convey experiences and views, linking persons to communal perspectives; second, allowing the people to afford assistance, plan actions, and challenge negative responses to their activities. Third, social media let individuals include others who are not part of their social media community to mutually discuss innovative joint actualities and distribute or disseminate the information (Greijdanus et al., 2020). The challenging aspect of social media activism is the possibility of mobilization of people based on misleading information. Therefore, content on social media, especially information used to mobilize people, should be reviewed, substantiated and regulated to protect people from data that can lead to controversial issues such as racism, violence and hate speech.

4.7.5 Social media censorship and de-platforming

Social media has faced criticism concerning censorship and de-platforming. Censorship and de-platforming are about permanently prohibiting and removing accounts on social media of individuals who promote hate speech, for example, censorship and de-platforming of far-right advocates who share controversial information (Urman and Katz, 2020). The criticism is that by barring, halting or closing the accounts of those who make controversial statements, the social media companies will violate the freedom of expression (Terry et al., 2020). The researcher's position on this controversial issue is that social media companies should continue censorship and de-platforming to eliminate unwanted online behaviours like racism and hate speech. In addition, social media platforms must strengthen their terms and conditions to suspend, ban or delete the accounts of individuals that violate their conditions and terms.

4.7.6 Social media addiction

Social media is globally used for socio-economic and political networking reasons. However, the widespread use of social media platforms has resulted in addictive behaviours or social media addiction. Social media addiction is the excessive usage, dependency, disorder and constant checking or observing of social media, established in obsessive use that undermines other undertakings or responsibilities (Longstreet and Brooks, 2017; Turel, Brevers and Bechara, 2018; Zivnuska et al., 2019). Social media addiction also includes fixation, temper alteration, cumulative usage, withdrawal manners, disregarding other activities and revert (Turel, Brevers and Bechara, 2018). Individuals share content on social media to obtain feedback, such as shares, comments and likes, which causes emotional reactions (Zivnuska et

al., 2019). However, the emotional responses to the feedback may result in job-related consequences like work and life instability, work fatigue or exhaustion, and in due course, even affecting work functioning (Zivnuska et al., 2019). Therefore, social media users should consider using the platforms in moderation. Additionally, social media companies should limit their algorithms to attract the overuse of their sites.

4.7.7 Social media and fraud

The advancement of modern technology has provided benefits such as fast, instant and user-friendly ways of communicating or sharing information through mobile devices and social media. However, one of the drawbacks of platforms such as social media is that criminals can use them to undertake illicit activities such as scamming and fraud. Studies have indicated that social media is used for fraudulent, malicious or cybercrime activities such as phishing, hacking, identity theft and scams (Lee, 2018; Mirtaheri et al., 2021; Nagunwa, 2014). According to Nagunwa (2014), phishing activities resulting in fraud have brought about many social and economic harms to online communities. Social media fraud can also lead to financial losses and security risks. Online platforms such as social media must increase privacy and security settings to mitigate the risk of fraud to users. Users can also be vigilant, protect their privacy and report/flag fraudulent activities for service providers to remove/suspend/ban fraudsters/scammers from their sites.

4.8 Chapter summary and conclusion

This chapter was centred on the concept of social media. Initially, the chapter located and discussed the origins and development of social media. Then, the chapter focused on social media user statistics, definitions and functions. Next, the section reviewed the social media/social networking sites. Also, the chapter unpacked the connection between social media and development. Lastly, the section uncovered social media critiques. Central to the chapter was demonstrating how social media platforms enable or facilitate the flow of information and social networking. The next chapter focuses on the theoretical framework of the thesis, which is the social capital theory.

5. CHAPTER 5: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: SOCIAL CAPITAL

" 'It's not what you know, it's who you know.' This common aphorism sums up much of the conventional wisdom regarding social capital. " (Woolcock, 2001: 67)

5.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a comprehensive dialogue of the theoretical framework of the research, which is the social capital theory. First, the section provides the background and origin of the social capital theory and how it has been defined and conceptualized by numerous academics and theorists. Three main perspectives by leading social capital theorists have also been reviewed: Bourdieu, Coleman and Putnam's standpoints. Second, the section discusses the various principles and forms of social capital. Third, the chapter examines how social capital has been criticized and its shortcomings. Lastly, the link between social capital, social media and remittances is discussed.

5.2 Background, origin and definitions of the social capital theory

5.2.1 Background and origin of Social Capital

The social capital theory has evolved since the 20th century and has become a popular model in the social sciences and other disciplines. This high recognition of the social capital concept has led to growing debates and contestations about the precise definition, origin, history and connotations. In the face of the contemporary high recognition of 'social capital', the phrase is not an expression new to sociologists (Portes, 1998). Its roots and conception date back to Durkheimian underscore on communal life as the panacea to the breakdown of the typical communal or principled values and self-destruction and Karl Marx's differentiation between an atomized class-in-itself and an organized and efficient class-for-itself (Portes, 1998).

Along similar lines, Farr (2004), Lin (1999) and Woolcock (1998) note that the foundation of social capital can be traced back to philosophers like Marx, Weber, Durkheim, Simmel and Bentham. They were influenced by economic sociology debates of their times. But, Farr (2004) notes that the first acknowledged use of the term 'social capital' is credited by Putnam (2000) to Lyda Hanifan, a state supervisor of rural schools, who, in 1916, in "a story of achievement", noted that:

> In the use of the phrase *social capital* I make no reference to the usual acceptation of the term *capital*, except in a figurative sense. I do not refer to real estate, or to personal property or to cold cash, but rather to that in life which tends to make these tangible

> substances count for most in the daily lives of a people, namely, goodwill, fellowship, mutual sympathy, and social intercourse among a group of individuals and families who make up a social unity, the rural community whose logical center is the school. In community building as in business organization and expansion there must be an accumulation of capital before constructive work can be done…That there is today almost a total lack of such capital in rural districts throughout the country need not to be retold in this article…The important question now is, 'How may these conditions be made better?' (Farr, 2004; 11).

Before 1916, as Farr (2004:12) states, the phrase 'social capital' was absent in the works of Hanifan. But by this time, he had outlined an exploration of a social condition that was useful in describing the nonexistence of social capital in rural districts (Farr, 2004). According to Farr (2004), the outline examined dreadful school situations, disparities of wealth present in industrial expansion, unequal and discrimination schooling for "Negro youth" and foreigners in both countryside and metropolitan America who were unable to develop into good citizens without assistance. Noteworthy is the remarkable omission of the Hanifan narrative by many scholars who trace the origins of social capital, yet it is an essential contribution to the concept. Putnam (2004) acknowledged that Hanifan's description of social capital predicted every part of the fundamental features in understanding in the years that followed. However, Hanifan's hypothetical discovery seemingly was not observed or recognized by other social scholars and thinkers and became extinct without a mark (Putnam, 2004).

Furthermore, Putnam (2004) argues that several scholars autonomously revived similar thoughts of Hanifan's conception of social capital in the later years. Putnam (2004) notes several scholars who contributed to the social capital conception. First, sociologists in Canada in the 1950s described the club affiliations of arriviste in the suburbs. Second, by urbanist Jane Jacobs in the 1960s, to compliment the friendliness and helpfulness among neighbours in contemporary metropolitan areas. Third, by Glenn Loury in the 1970s to probe the social heritage of slavery (Putnam, 2004). Lastly, in the 1980s, Pierre Bourdieu and Ekkehart Schlicht, an economist, emphasised the social and economic capitals personified in social networks, and James Coleman, a sociologist who decisively positioned the phrase in the academic circles, brought to light the social perspective of education (Putnam, 2004). Woolcock (1998) also remarked the same and cites scholars in arguing that the modern use of the social capital theory is credited to the writings of Pierre Bourdieu (1986), Jane Jacobs (1961), Pierre Bourdieu and Jean-Claude Passeron (1970), Glenn Loury (1977), and later

expanded at length by James Coleman (1988), Alejandro Portes and Julia Sensenbrenner (1993), Ronald Burt (1995), Robert Putnam (1994, 1995, 2001) and Alejandro Portes (1998).

5.2.2 Definitions and conceptualization of the social capital theory

The meaning of social capital has been highly debated and contested. In numerous academic and philosophical disciplines, the perspectives on social capital have changed and differed over time. However, in summing up the general understanding of the social capital concept, Woolcock and Narayan (2000:225) articulate that "It's not what you know, it's who you know". Inevitably, the simple notion of social capital is that an individual's household, family, companions, friends, networks, and contacts are an essential asset in emergencies (Woolcock and Narayan, 2000). Along with similar perspectives, Lin (1999) argues that the basis of the social capital hypothesis is reasonably uncomplicated and clear-cut, which is that the investment in social associations has anticipated returns. Lin (1999) also noted that the basis and general characterization of social capital he provided are more or less the same as the other interpretations in the contributions on the social capital dialogues by various academics and intellectuals. Similarly, Portes (2000) states that social capital scholars have centred on the gains accumulating to people through their relations with others using considerable disparities. Noteworthy is that there are three critical perceptions of social capital by prominent social capital theorists, to be exact: Bourdieu, Coleman and Putnam.

5.2.3 Social capital theory and Bourdieu's viewpoint

The French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu generated the early systematic and modern-day inquiry of social capital (Portes, 1998). He defined social capital as "the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognition" (Bourdieu 1985: 248 cited by Portes, 1998:3). In the same way, social capital is about affiliation to a group that affords all the affiliates with the support of the communally possessed capital, a recognition which give them the right to credit in many ways (Bourdieu, 1986). According to Bourdieu, social capital is the value rooted in social networks that persons can attain to their benefit (Beel and Wallace, 2020).

Bourdieu describes the capital types, including social, cultural and economic capital (Julien, 2015). Bebbington (2007) argues that Bourdieu initiated the social capital model as a segment of a broader task for comprehending how relations of domination, power and difference are formed and maintained and how social structures function within groups or associations. These

actors of dissimilarity are characterized by the diverse distribution of capitals, which are social, economic and cultural (Bebbington, 2007). In Bourdieu's perspective, social capital is noticeably ascribed to class and status and some types of hierarchies related to numerous kinds of advantages or improvements. Consequently, social capital is inherent in an individual and associated with social networks and the ability to use it for progress or profit.

Julien (2015) notes that first, Bourdieu's economic capital is transformable to wealth or money. Second, cultural capital comprises noticeable and physical dissimilarities, like academic degrees or school qualifications and books, and the personal nature of an individual, for example, character, impacted by childhood or background (Julien, 2015; Portes, 2000). Third, social capital occurs in the scope of social connections or interactions and entails the social responsibilities derived from those associations (Julien, 2015; Portes, 2000; Portes, 1998). The integration of the three (social capital, cultural capital and economic capital) into structures is acknowledged in Bourdieu's conceptualization of social capital. For example, Bebbington (2007) posits that Bourdieu's social capital can be comprehended as a portion of a system of social, cultural and economic facets. Specifically, Bourdieu's notion of social capital theory was influential, extended further by remarking that individuals purposely create their associations for the gains or advantages they attain in the future (Portes, 2000).

To sum up, social capital involves the characteristics of modes of connections, links and social relations. Bourdieu's social capital describes the gains or returns resulting from social ties. But, the basis of this social capital perspective emanates from economic, cultural or social arrangements resulting in disparity in hegemony, control and rank or class system in society that applies to particular persons only. Another early contributor to the social capital theory is the American Sociologist James Coleman. Although numerous noteworthy differences exist, Bourdieu and Coleman, both were attentive to the benefits accumulating to persons or families because of the asset of connections with others (Portes and Landolt, 2000).

5.2.4 Social capital theory and Coleman's viewpoint

The American sociologist James Coleman in his comprehension of social capital focused on its functions. According to Coleman, social capital "…is not a single entity but a variety of different entities, with two elements in common: They all consist of some aspect of social structures, and they facilitate certain action of actors—whether persons or corporate actors—within the structure" (Coleman 1988: S98). Fukuyama (2002) posits that Coleman described social capital as the capability of individuals to work collectively in groups. Coleman comprehended social capital as necessary in the family setting. Also, Coleman (1988) notes

that family structures are made up of social, financial, and human capital. In addition, Coleman (1990) also viewed social capital as necessary to succeed in the education space. Developing social capital between educators, guardians, and learners is essential for school achievement (Coleman, 1988). Thus, Coleman's viewpoint shows how social capital is significant when all the parties included in a particular plan operate as a system to reach the expected aims and objectives. Networking is central to this social capital standpoint; for example, this consist of the collaboration, coordination and communication of different stakeholders in a resourceful manner.

5.2.5 Social capital theory and Putnam's viewpoint

The American political scientist Robert Putnam defined social capital as "features of social life - networks, norms, and trust that enable participants to act together more effectively to pursue shared objective" (Putnam, 1995: 664 – 665). Helliwell and Putnam (1995) note that social capital enriches the gains of investment in human and physical capital; they add that doing activities as a collective is uncomplicated in a community fortunate to have a sizeable accumulation of social capital. Putnam (2001) posits that the fundamental notion of social capital is that networks and the related customs of mutuality have merit. Putnam (2000) argues networks of civic interactions nurture robust standards of widespread mutual benefit and boost the development of social trust. These networks enable harmonization and exchange of ideas, strengthen statuses, and let predicaments of communal activities be dealt with (Putnam, 2001). Accordingly, connections and participation encourage and enrich shared values and trust, which are vital to the production and upkeep of wellbeing (Osei and Karriem, 2019). Thus, social capital is necessary for enabling the collaboration and reciprocally resourceful associations that can be beneficial in addressing the local, regional, continental and global challenges

5.3 Researcher's position

Various academics and theorists have explained the meaning and conceptualization of social capital, as illustrated in the sections above. Accordingly, and in the context of this research, Putnam's viewpoint is the one that is relevant to this research and was utilized as the theoretical basis of the thesis. From Putnam's viewpoint, the researcher delineates social capital as the networks, connections, ideals and faith that enable deeds and collaboration for reciprocal benefit amongst persons or groups. In other words, at the centre of social capital are networks with family, relatives, friends, associates, contacts, references, and communities where mutual benefit and trust are expected. For that reason, the researcher recognized the significance of

Putnam's social capital perspective as the theoretical foundation of the development of social media in the food remitting phenomenon among Zimbabweans migrants and various stakeholders. Schaefer-McDaniel (2004) notes that Putnam's attention to communities and society led to his conception of social capital to attract ample notice from community development investigators and has therefore developed to be the leading concept of social capital. Consequently, Putnam and community investigators presented three stages of social capital: bonding, bridging and linking (Schaefer-McDaniel, 2004). The particular forms of social capital were also applied in showing how Zimbabwean migrants navigated using social media and their networks in the food remitting process.

5.4 Forms of Social capital

Three primary forms characterize social capital: bonding, bridging, and linking.

5.4.1 Bonding social capital

Page-Tan (2021) notes that bonding connections help clarify the attached, relative groups with similar circumstances, background beliefs or traditions, and family units signify the closest bonding associations a person can own. Bonding capital denotes the robust links developed with individuals of the same demographic features, like close family, household members, associates and neighbours (Dunwoodie et al., 2020). Similarly, bonding social capital represents affairs amongst families, close friends and neighbours (Szreter and Woolcock, 2004; Woolcock, 2001; Woolcock and Narayan, 2000). Bonding social capital exists in intra-group links, collaboration and trust in an exclusive setup (Nannestad et al., 2008). Bonding linkages develop on solid connections and involve horizontally formed trust (Dunwoodie et al., 2020). (Nannestad et al., 2008). In this study, bonding and social capital are significant in enabling the interaction, communication and collaboration between family members, friends and close associates through social media in the setting of food remitting.

5.4.2 Bridging social capital

Bridging social capital denotes the relations established with distant connections, contacts or contemporaries who may not share similar characteristics or backgrounds (Dunwoodie et al., 2020; Szreter and Woolcock, 2004; Woolcock, 2001; Woolcock and Narayan, 2000). In other words, bridging social capital is inclusive (Page-Tan, 2021). Bridging social capital comprises inter-group links, mutual existence and trust that go beyond group cleavages (Nannestad et al., 2008; Dunwoodie et al., 2020) argue that bridging links are also horizontally set up; however, the social capital established from these empowers the individual to associate with other persons based on trust and mutual connections, although their personal links to these new

individuals are not strong. Correspondingly, Woolcock (2001) posits that bridging is a horizontal representation but inferring relations between individuals who share broadly parallel demographic attributes. Bridging social capital is helpful in this study by affording the prospect of assisting the message transmission, exchanging ideas and cooperation beyond closed alliances and groups, and focusing on broader units and collaboration through utilizing social media when food remitting.

5.4.3 Linking social capital

Claridge (2018) argues that linking social capital is vertical and refers to standards of admiration and links of trust or associations between individuals networking across overt, formal or institutionalized control, influence or power levels in communities. For instance, associations or interactions between public or civic groups and political leaders. At the centre of linking social capital is the awareness of the contrasts in authority in the association. Both sides know the levels of power or authority they have.

5.5 Social capital criticism

The social capital theory is popular and used in various disciplines to explain how individuals, societies, groups and communities relate. However, the theory has also faced numerous critical views. The first noticeable criticism is based on the fact that there is no consensus on the meaning and definition of social capital; defining it has led to several contestations. Various theorists and scholars have used varied definitions and descriptions of social capital. This has led scholars like Knorringa and Van Staveren (2007) to argue that the concept of social capital is entirely vague. Lin (1999) posits that the problems in understanding social capital formed theoretical and measurement misperceptions. Similarly, Woolcock and Narayan (2000) assert that attaining a solitary, accurate measure of social capital is perhaps not conceivable, considering that most of the wide-ranging definitions of social capital are multidimensional, integrated at diverse stages and components of exploration. In addressing the possible confusion and mix-ups with the appraisal or measurement of social capital, the World Bank created an integrated tool to guarantee standardization (see Grootaert, 2004). Accordingly, the researcher generated a study tool consistent with the common instruments used to measure social capital.

Daly and Silver (2008) argue that the narratives on social capital mainly focus on its positive outcomes and overlook most of its shortcomings. For example, social capital may lead to undesirable circumstances like bigotry, corruption, discrimination, nepotism, disparity and unfairness (Daly and Silver, 2008). Social capital can cause disagreements and divisions on

one side and harmony or union on the other. Therefore, there is a need for more interrogation on both the negative and positive aspects of the social capital theory. The social capital definitions lack clarity on social capital and its origins (Knorringa and Van Staveren 2007). Likewise, Fischer (2005) posits that the term 'social capital' is problematic and is a representation that misinforms and provides substitute terms like trust, family, sociability and membership.

Haynes (2009) notes that one of the main critiques of social capital is that it is not capital. This critique is founded on an economic perspective. For instance, Haynes (2009:4) cites Arrow (1999), who postulates that 'capital' infers three components which are "extension in time; an intended sacrifice for deferred benefit; alienability". The deduction made in this contestation was that in the social capital concept, there is the absence of the three features necessary for the concept to be regarded as a concrete illustration of capital and established no rationale to include 'social capital' in other types of capital (Haynes, 2009). This criticism is expected, considering it is a multi-disciplinary concept from different viewpoints. The theory, nonetheless, continue to be valuable, relevant and engaging. This is evidenced by the unwillingness to dismiss social capital theory in numerous disciplines because of the wide-ranging representation and usefulness of the hypothesis.

Portes (1998) notes the differences in understanding and conceptualizing social capital. However, a consensus is developing in various studies and research that social capital represents the capability of actors to gain benefits by merit of affiliation or association in social networks or other social constructs (Portes, 1998). Consequently, although the social capital theory has various drawbacks, the hypothesis provides a valuable understanding of human relations. It will probably receive more attention and application from diverse scholars and researchers from different disciplines.

5.6 Linking social capital, social media and remittances

The connection between social capital and remittances is intricate yet very important because of the diverse layers of helpful information acquired from the association. A study by Pratikto, Yazid and Dewi (2020) on increasing the role of remittances via social capital shows the association between social capital and remittances. The findings in their study indicate how social capital, determined by active involvement in local level unions, may promote the utilization of remittances from Indonesia's female migrant workers for productive assets. Consequently, it results in a somewhat increased possibility of nurturing female migrant workers' well-being and broadly reducing poverty (Yazid and Dewi, 2020). It is vital for

relatives of migrant workers to have the social capital to facilitate remittance-receiving family units to acquire information and added capital in starting or assisting business undertakings (Pratikto, Yazid and Dewi, 2020). The importance of social capital is that it involves mutual principles, standards, reliance and communal existence that makes socio-economic and political activities feasible, in this case, remitting behaviours.

Research by Fransen (2015) on remittances and social capital in Burundi reveals that the families and relatives that receive remittances devote more attention to bridging social capital. Nonetheless, they did not make more significant financial offerings to their bridging social capital (Fransen, 2015). The loved ones who receive remittances showed that they use more cash on their bonding social capital, however, solely when the connections encompassed family associates (Fransen, 2015). Generally, as noted by Fransen (2015), the discoveries in the study appear to propose that monetary investments as a result of remittances bolster the bonding social capital of families and relatives that receive remittances. Similarly, Gerber and Torosyan (2013) argue that remittances promote social capital development, creating and strengthening social relations among groups more extensive than the household in anticipation of economic and/or normative benefits. The hypothetical assumption of the evidence implies that remittances may be invested in social capital in addition to productive and human capital (Gerber and Torosyan, 2013).

The study by Posas (1999) provides helpful information on how social capital is one of the main remitting drivers and plays a significant role in determining whether to remit, save, and keep the quantity. The results, established in the research by Posas (1999) of numerous migrant families and relatives, indicate that social capital is crucial in reducing consumption expenditures and enduring times of crisis through the challenging stages of the migration process. More importantly, Posas (1999) noted that social capital is vital for income maximizing plans in the host location by creating and utilising social ties among associates and relatives and social connections with affiliates of key social organizations. In remittances, social capital helps to provide positive expectations and confidence amongst people, service providers and access to resources in the remitting process. Scholars (Cao et al., 2015; Chen and Li, 2017; Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe, 2007; Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe, 2011; Gil de Zúñiga, Jung and Valenzuela, 2012; Quinn, 2016) have also reflected on how social media/social networking sites through online social networking can result in beneficial bridging or bonding social capital. Therefore, social media platforms provide essential tools for generating social capital.

At the centre of the literature on migration and/or remittances is the concept of social media linked to ICTs. Migrant networks can be enhanced using social media (Ihejirika and Krtalic, 2021; Merisalo and Jauhiainen, 2021). Globally there is emerging evidence that indicates that international migrants use social media platforms (see Borkert, Fisher and Yafi, 2018; Dekker, Engbersen and Faber, 2016; Ennaji and Bignami, 2019; Merisalo and Jauhiainen, 2020; Miller, 2018; Plascencia, 2016; Pourmehdi and Shahrani, 2021; Ulla, 2021). Borkert, Fisher and Yafi (2018) reveal the importance of social media for social support amongst refugees before and post-migration to Europe. Their study substantiates the significance of online interaction on platforms like Facebook and WhatsApp and the importance of mobile smartphones. Results of the research illustrate that migrants are digital agents of transformation who are active and share content on online social networks and social media (Borkert, Fisher and Yafi, 2018).

Ennaji and Bignami (2019) note that migrants may utilize Facebook to prove the reliability and dependability of the information. Tools that can be used for logistics, like social media and smartphones, are helpful for multidimensional communication within migrant societies and countries by connecting migrants through shared experiences virtually and in person (Ennaji and Bignami, 2019). Merisalo and Jauhiainen (2020) argue that online and social media networking can distribute information. The content that can be shared virtually includes education, employment, migration decision, accommodation and host area circumstances (Merisalo and Jauhiainen, 2020). In addition, the content on the internet is a mix of unofficial and official content, for example, generated by the private sector, public sector, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and persons (Merisalo and Jauhiainen, 2020).

Plascencia (2016) asserts that social media provides a valuable platform for migration decisions and connects the migrants in the destination areas with relatives in the origin areas. Social media also progressed to be a public space where migrants can participate in political and activist conversations where content is distributed, such as pictures, multimedia components, and testaments (Plascencia, 2016). Pourmehdi and Shahrani (2021) note that migrants have access to social media platforms like Skype, Twitter and Facebook. Their research indicated that social media is vital in encouraging or supporting associates and relatives in the origin areas to migrate. In addition, the study revealed that the migration decision was impacted by the upholding of associations on social media with associates and family in the origin locations. Furthermore, the research uncovered that associates and families utilized social media to obtain invitations to migrate.

Moreover, the study noted that social media platforms facilitated interaction more regularly with their relatives than communicating through the phone. Lastly, the research showed the significance of social media as a relatively inexpensive medium of interaction with relatives and associates abroad (Pourmehdi and Shahrani, 2021). Ulla's (2021) research indicates that migrants first monitor and view news on social media to stay informed on events, advancements, and political situations in the origin areas. Second, be aware of their families' circumstances in the origin locations (Ulla, 2021). Third, it helps their social and personal devotions, eases stress, creates a calming environment, and links them with their relatives in the origin areas and with other migrants in the destination locations (Ulla, 2021).

However, the connection between remittances and social media is lacking in the literature. Akanle, Fayehun and Oyelakin (2021) argue there is limited attention on the research on the functions of social media and information communication technology (ICT) in the associations between remittances, international migration and kinships in Sub-Saharan Africa. This applies to how household members, families or relatives sustain interactions or connections in the place of origin and the migrants in the destination locations. The migration decision-making developments, drivers of migration, relationships and family affairs, persistence and references of social interaction, and influence of tools like social media and information communication technology (ICT), especially in the times of growing international migration, need more investigations (Akanle, Fayehun and Oyelakin, 2021).

The connection between social capital, remittances and social media is absent and unnoticed in the plethora of knowledge on remittances, migration and development research. Yet, the relationships between social capital, remittances and social media can significantly contribute to comprehending the complex and multifaceted settings migrants navigate in remitting with the assistance of social networks, relationships, friendships, kinships and connections. Social capital, with the aid of social media, can help develop and uphold social connections, interactions, sharing of information and brainstorming ideas that may influence or assist in the remitting phenomenon. Therefore, narratives and debates on remittances, migration and development must recognize and certainly examine the added value of social media in their research and body of knowledge.

5.7 Chapter conclusion

This chapter commenced with a description of the background and origin of social capital theory. Subsequently, the meanings and definitions of the social capital theory were discussed. The chapter then moved to three central perspectives of the social capital thinkers: Bourdieu, Coleman, and Putnam. Next, the chapter conversed the different forms of social capital. And then, the critique of the social capital theory was discussed. Lastly, to put this thesis into perspective, the chapter provided the link between social capital, remittances and social media. In the context of this research, the social capital theory was considered a suitable and fitting concept. The nexus between the social capital theory and social media help to understand the role and importance of social networking in human relations/interactions. In this thesis, the social capital theory facilitated and assisted in comprehending social media's emerging role in the food remitting phenomena. The following section pays particular focus to the methodology of the thesis.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is attentive to the research methodology of the study. Initially, the chapter provides the philosophical foundation of the research. Then, it shifts to utilising the mixed-method technique, comprising quantitative and qualitative research methods. The chapter also contains the research design, methodology, data collection instruments, sampling techniques, data analysis, data presentation, ethics statement, reliability and validity, and lastly, the limitations of the research.

6.2 Research Philosophy

The researcher's position is the pragmatist approach which entails using both the positivist and interpretivist standpoints. Accordingly, the pragmatist approach used in the study is centred on a mix of quantitative and qualitative research methods. The mixed-methods approach is relevant for this research on the emerging role of social media in the food remitting phenomenon. However, this section will discuss the aspects of research philosophy. Accordingly, people view the world differently, and individuals around the globe operate differently, making it problematic to reach a consensus on the correct viewpoint or perspective. Similarly, this is the same in research, where researchers have diverse beliefs and are a branch of research philosophy.

Consequently, research philosophy is about the world's view in the context of the nature of research; this includes data collection, analysis of data, and data presentation or data use when investigating a phenomenon (Creswell, 2014). Also, in research, there is an epistemology facet that is about the theoretical, nature and methodological aspects or forms and gaining or being of knowledge and its acceptability or validity (Crotty, 1998: Creswell, 2003; Alharahsheh and Pius, 2020); and ontology which is about the nature of being concerning reality (Crotty, 1998; Majeed, 2019), then axiology which involves judgement, principles and values (Creswell, 2003). There are three significant research philosophies: positivism, post-positivism and anti-positivism.

6.2.1 Positivism lens

The phrase positivism or ‘positivist philosophy’ was formulated by Auguste Comte (1798 – 1857) to explain his methodical reconstruction of the history and expansion of scientific knowledge (Phillips and Burbules, 2000; Moxley, 2006; Halfpenny, 2014). The above was related to the emergence of an epistemological viewpoint on positivistic approaches. Thyer

(2008: 340) notes that Comte's expression "positivisme" originated from "positif", which is French, and has more meaning of material reality than the inference of certainty implied by the English phrase "positive". Also, the thinking of positivism was focused on devising natural or material rationalization of human experiences, as contrasting to those based on theology and metaphysics, and inventing societal uses of positive science (Thyer, 2008). Therefore, the philosophy of positivism materialized because of Comte's criticism of metaphysics and the need to base the search for knowledge on science.

Aliyu et al. (2014) indicate that positivism philosophy included the philosopher David Hume (1711 – 1776) idea of the natural world of reality, in other words, idealistic ontology, which was linked to scientific practices. Furthermore, positivism utilized the philosopher Rene Descartes (1596–1650) and his epistemological thinking, hypothesis and theory of knowledge reasoning; this focused on rationale as the best method to make and produce knowledge regarding truth and realism (Aliyu et al., 2014). In addition, sociologist Émile Durkheim (1858 – 1917) modified some of Comte's thinking and promoted positivism in sociology and social sciences (Halfpenny, 2014). The origins of the positivist viewpoint laid the foundation for knowledge seeking to be explored and practised by science, objectivism and experiments. The meaning of positivism is deep-rooted in the idea that knowledge is based on science, reductionism, and empirical evidence (Creswell, 2014; Alharahsheh and Pius, 2020); in this context, the knowledge is objective, can be quantified, measured or tested by hypotheses, and depends on experiments and statistics.

Crotty (1998) argues that positivism is founded on the notion that valid and reliable knowledge is scientific and empirical-based, emphasising quantitative methods. Creswell (2014) summarized the positivism perspective by stating that it is occasionally defined as the scientific method of doing scientific research. The anti-positivism approach or interpretivism favours dualism in methodology; anti-positivists argue that the social sciences are essentially dissimilar to natural science (Tharakan, 2006). There is also the post-positivism method, which is discontent with the positivist approach. The post-positivism approach is characterized by being objective and broad, combines theory and practice (Ryan, 2006), as well as the researcher and the respondents or phenomenon under study, and taking into consideration the value and importance of both qualitative and quantitative methods (Lindlof & Taylor, 2011). The significance of the positivist approach is that it uses experimental, scientific and dynamic procedures in research that are valuable for comprehensive analysis.

6.2.2 Interpretivism lens

The roots of the interpretivism viewpoints are based on the phrase ‘interpretive’ in the debates of sociological approaches derived from the German expression ‘verstehen’ (David, 2010). However, the German word is also interpreted as ‘understanding’ (David, 2010). Prominent figures who advocated for the interpretivist approach and its subjective orientation include Weber and Simmel (David, 2010). The anti-positivism or interpretivism method is inductive and subjective, discontented with post-positivism and is about interpreting and finding meaning in social behaviour when engaging in research (Alharahsheh and Pius, 2020; Macionis and Gerber, 2011). Interpretivists believe that universal truth is nonexistent and comprehend that knowledge-seeking and interpretation are based on context, background and locus (Aliyu et al., 2014). The anti-positivists grasp that the world is subjective, and research procedures linked to their thinking include field research, exploratory inquiry, and qualitative studies (Aliyu et al., 2014). The interpretivism approach is essential because it is interactive, affords giving meaning to data, and provides in-depth analysis and detailed interpretation of the issue under investigation.

6.2.3 Pragmatic lens

This study employed the pragmatic approach. The origins of pragmatics can be traced to early classical thinking of rhetoric and stylistics, to Immanuel Kant’s notion of pragmatics as experiential, practical and purposive (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011). However, the origins, justification and first use of pragmatism are widely acknowledged to be founded in the 1870s on Charles Peirce’s ideas on the pragmatic maxim hypothesis (Forster, 2003). The ideas focused on how the intellectual content should be explained by postulating the projected effects when an object related to a particular concept is exposed to several practical procedures like the ones performed in scientific experiments (Forster, 2003). This was followed in the 1900s by the work of William James, who drew attention to the practical makeup of the pragmatic branch of knowledge (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011). Other contributions came in the 20th century from the pragmatic ideas of Peirce, Carnap and Morris and linguists in the 1960s, then later language philosophers, anthropologists, sociologists and scholars from other fields (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011).

Pragmatism is mainly based on events, circumstances and effects, unlike antecedent circumstances in the positivist perspective (Creswell, 2014). Creswell (2014) first argues that pragmatism is not obliged to operate based on a single viewpoint; for example, the mixed methods approach utilizes quantitative and qualitative techniques and does not use one or leave the other. Second, Creswell (2014) states that investigators who use the pragmatic approach have autonomy in choosing the approach they want; consequently, investigators are at liberty to select the course of action, practices and research measures suitable to their goals and target studies. Third, Creswell (2014) postulates that pragmatists are receptive to various techniques and diverse hypotheses and accept multiple data gathering and inquiry procedures to find the best practical way to examine and comprehend the research problem.

Similarly, Feilzer (2010) posits that the requirement of pragmatic thinking is not loyal to a single specific approach or mixing of methods; instead, it intends to examine the inquiry, assumption or phenomenon understudy with the best applicable research technique. Similarly, Biddle and Schafft (2015) argue that pragmatic analysis, research design and methodology work in a diversity of practices consisting of quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods inquiry subject to the investigator's decision on the best efficient way to generate justified and reliable data in the context of accessible information and prospects for examination and available resources.

6.2.4 Basis for selected approach (pragmatic approach)

In the context of this research, the pragmatic approach of using both positivism and interpretivism was used. This was because of the need to be impartial in understanding and investigating food remitting and social media dynamics in migrant Zimbabweans in the global south, utilizing quantitative and qualitative methods. Using the pragmatic perspectives was also founded on the research aim and objectives that proved best suited for a multidimensional viewpoint. Utilizing approaches from both the positivist and interpretivism philosophies proved helpful, and the two complemented each other. Accordingly, the positivist worldview discovered what qualitative and exploratory interpretations could not reveal. Conversely, the interpretivism viewpoint uncovered what the exclusive use of numbers and statistics could not. The positivist approach is valuable for quantifying and using statistics to comprehend the variables and topic under study. Equally important, the interpretivism approach is crucial for an in-depth understanding and comprehensive perspectives of the research topic.

6.3 Research design

The research design is the cornerstone of any research because it offers the structure to collect and analyse data validly and reliably. Creswell (2009) and Mouton (2001) argue that research designs are schemes, blueprints, and methods for gathering, examining, and doing research. In the context of the research problems, questions, aims and objectives, and the practical and pragmatic research philosophy of this study, the research approach utilized in this study was the mixed methods approach. The basis of the selected research design was to afford a suitable framework for a thesis. The chosen research design's objective was to conduct a robust and plausible study. The need to use a mixed or pragmatic approach was to have a comprehensive, in-depth, multi-faceted and deeper understanding of the emerging part of social media in the transfer of food to the country of origin in the case study of Zimbabwean Migrants in Cape Town, South Africa.

6.3.1 Methodology

6.3.1.1 Mixed methods

The apparatus and procedures for conducting research are termed research methods; they involve the examination done with rigour to determine or discover thought-provoking new knowledge or information (Walliman, 2017). This research adopted a mixed approach to the research design using quantitative and qualitative methods. According to Tashakkori and Creswell (2007), mixed-method is the approach in which the researcher gathers and examines information, combines the results, and makes deductions using qualitative and quantitative procedures in the same study. Qualitative approach or research "involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials, case study, personal experience, life story, interview, artefacts, and cultural texts and productions, along with observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts – that describe routine and problematic moments in meanings in individuals' lives…" (Denzin and Lincoln 2011:4). Babbie (2009) argues that qualitative analysis involves investigating social research information without changing it to numerical values. Qualitative research is generally efficient regarding processual issues (Bryman, 2017).

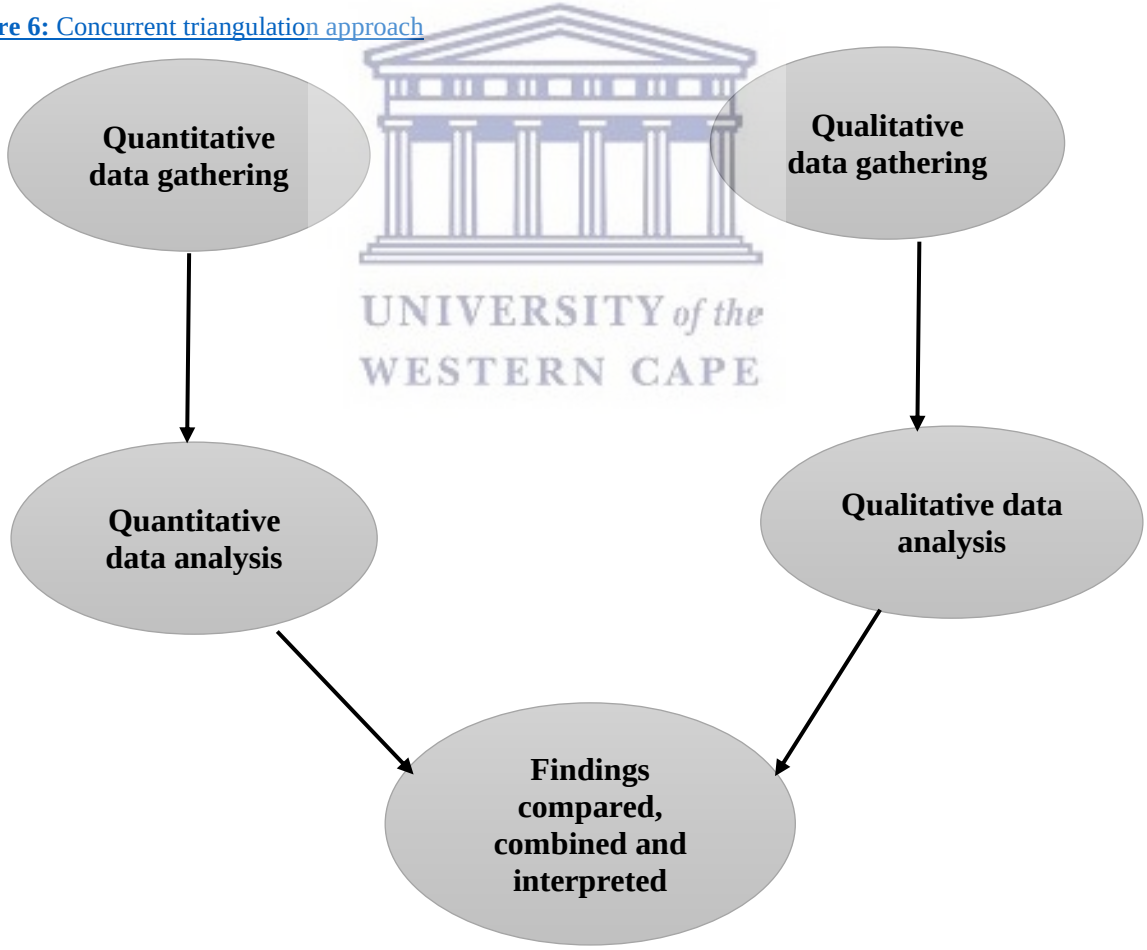
In contrast to quantitative approaches, qualitative research does not include numbers or numerical data. The Quantitative approach is based on science, numbers, and maths and is calculable for data collection and examination (Neuman, 2000; Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

The quantitative method is particularly effective in obtaining structural aspects of social life (Bryman, 2017). The rationale behind using the mixed methods approach is that the research aimed to have an in-depth, comprehensive exploration of the phenomenon under study concerning the respondents' perspectives, actions, activities, and experiences. The mixed-method approach can counterbalance the drawbacks of both qualitative and quantitative methods. In addition, mixing the two techniques presents a robust and comprehensive study and provides an extensive or in-depth research analysis.

6.3.1.2 Concurrent triangulation

This study used concurrent triangulation (Figure 6). Creswell (2009) posits that concurrent triangulation in mixed methods is when the investigator gathers both quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously and then assesses the two sets of information to establish any conjunctions, dissimilarities, or mixture. Therefore, the data is combined to analyse the general findings (Creswell, 2009), illustrated in figure 6 below. The researcher selected concurrent triangulation to ensure the rationality and reliability of results by using a mixture of research approaches.

Figure 6: Concurrent triangulation approach



Source: Adapted from Davis and Higdon (2008) cited in Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010: 598)

6.4 Data collection instruments

6.4.1 Questionnaire

The quantitative data was gathered using a structured, closed-ended questionnaire on 100 respondents. Quantitative approaches, as indicated earlier, encompass figures, digits, numerals and technical procedures. For that reason, the questionnaire for the quantitative section of the study was based on numerical values. The questions had a set of numerous options which the respondents had to choose from concerning what applied to them. Central to the questions in the questionnaire was the reason to address the aim and objectives of the research. The purpose addressed in the questionnaire was to examine the role of social media in the food-remitting terrain of Zimbabwean Migrants in Cape Town, South Africa.

Additionally, the objectives addressed in the questionnaire included (a) To investigate the effects of social media on the motivations for food remitting by Zimbabweans and (b) To discover the role of social media as a facilitator in the channels used by Zimbabweans to send food back home and appraise the decisions to use the channels (c) To examine the effects of social media on the nature, trends and patterns of food remitting by Zimbabweans (e) To find out the challenges that Zimbabweans encounter when sending food back home and explore how social media help to address this (f) To explore the role of the family or household members in the food remitting process in the context of social media use. In that context, first, the questionnaire started with demographic and personal facts. Second, the questionnaire moved to issues relating to food remitting. Third, data associated with food remittances and social media were gathered.

6.4.2 In-depth Interviews

In qualitative data collection, open-ended, in-depth interviews were administered to 10 participants. Similar to the questionnaire, the interviews also paid attention to the aim and objectives of the study. The interviews aimed to examine the role of social media in the food-remitting terrain of Zimbabwean Migrants in Cape Town, South Africa. Furthermore, the objectives attended to in the interviews were to (a) To analyse the influence of social media on the motivations for food remitting by Zimbabweans and (b) To examine the role of social media as a facilitator in the channels used by Zimbabweans to send food back home and appraise the decisions to use the channels (c) To assess the effects of social media on the nature, trends and patterns of food remitting by Zimbabweans (e) To establish the challenges that Zimbabweans encounter when sending food back home and explore how social media help to address this (f)

To evaluate the role of the family or household members in the food remitting process in the context of social media use. The interview questions provided helpful information on food remittances and social media in that setting.

6.5 Sampling technique and data to be collected

Sampling is the procedure of choosing a subgroup or sample division from a more extensive cluster or population under research, and it aims to tackle the research question (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) cited in (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Non-probability sampling techniques, to be specific, snowballing and purposive sampling, was used to select 100 respondents to participate in the quantitative structured questionnaires and 10 participants for qualitative in-depth interviews. Snowballing sampling is a non-probability sampling method that uses a network or connection to get referrals to suitable participants from the respondents who participated in the study (Blanche, Durrheim, and Painter, 2006). The benefit of snowballing sampling is that it assists researchers in accessing potential participants that are possibly challenging to access. The importance of social networks/referrals was evident in this study, where the COVID-19 pandemic, lockdown and restriction measures made it challenging to access participants.

In addition, snowballing sampling method is inexpensive and uncomplicated. Purposive sampling, also known as judgmental sampling, is a category of nonprobability sampling (Babbie, 2010). The elements under research are chosen based on the investigator's decision about the most beneficial or illustrative components (Babbie, 2010). Purposive sampling is also inexpensive to undertake a study and valuable when there is limited time to conduct research; this was crucial in this study. Moreover, purposive sampling was fundamental in locating the respondents suitable for this study: food remitting Zimbabwean migrants.

6.6 Data analysis and presentation

6.6.1 Quantitative data analysis and presentation

In scientific research, data analysis consists of gathering information through questions and generating an analysis from the responses provided by respondents (Creswell 2009). The utilization of questionnaires gathered quantitative information. Then the analysis of the quantitative information gathered commenced when the researcher entered the data on a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet where a data set was created, cleaned and checked for miscalculations and abnormalities. The data was then moved to the statistical software STATA

13.0, labelled, defined and evaluated. The next step was to use descriptive statistics to interpret and analyze the data and presentation on graphs, charts, tables and figures. In scientific inquiry, descriptive statistics play a significant role by making available an outline and general idea of the features of a sample data clearly or simply to comprehend (Turner and Houle, 2019). Descriptive statistics helped make it easier and logical to scientifically understand the surfacing role of social media in the food remitting process.

6.6.2 Qualitative data analysis and presentation

In qualitative research, themes, viewpoints or aspects can materialize through information analysis (Creswell 2009). The study utilized thematic analysis in exploring the qualitative data. There was the detection, arrangement, classification and codification of evolving themes. Then the robust assessments of connections, parallels, disparities, and successively discovering the facets under study. Next, the data was cleaned, reevaluated, synthesized, and decoded. The discussions and presentation of the narratives or data were performed scientifically, thematically and rationally. The first theme was on drivers of food remitting and social media, followed by channels of food remitting and social media. Third, the nature of food remitting and social media. Next was food remitting challenges and social media. Lastly, the influence of family or household members on food remittances in connection to social media.

6.7 Ethics statement

The researcher conducted the study in adherence to the ethics and guidelines of the University of the Western Cape. The research and thesis writing commenced after the proposal was accepted by the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences and the committee of higher degrees. The researcher used primary data in the study. Before the data collection, the researcher attained an ethical clearance from the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences and Higher degrees committee at the University of the Western Cape. The next step was to start the data collection and explain to the participants the goals and purposes of the research, threats and gains, and contact information of the researcher and overseer of the study.

The researcher asked respondents to sign a consent form to confirm that they understood the information provided before the research and agreed to the terms and conditions. In addition, the researcher explained to the respondents that their participation in the study was voluntary. Moreover, the researcher clarified to respondents that they had the liberty not to partake and had the privilege to withdraw from the study at any time without explaining. There was

adherence to privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality issues. Also, pseudonyms were applied. Information and views obtained from the material under research were not changed or exaggerated. The researcher used an unbiased approach when discussing the study's findings.

6.8 Reliability and Validity

Reliability, consistency and rationality are vital in conducting scientific research. That is to say, reliability and validity are essential in any study and for the research output to be comprehensive, robust, significant, and trustworthy. Reliability entails the consistency and repeatability of an investigation; validity involves the relevance and applicability of research (Drost, 2011). The researcher double-checked the study data and verified the information to prevent possible inaccuracies. Similarly, the researcher retested and re-examined coded information to confirm the dependability of the study results. The research stages and processes also included recordings, labels, sites, and in-depth data gathering periods, which were crucial for re-examining the data.

The researcher used the triangulation technique of utilizing quantitative and qualitative results by assessing numerous subjects to reveal corresponding and contradictory viewpoints and guarantee that the research was valid. The researcher revisited surveys and interviews with some participants to verify the information provided and confirm correctness, reliability, and validity. The prolonged duration and interaction between the researcher and the participants provided an in-depth conception and substantiation of the results or gathered information. In some instances, a detailed description of the subjects in the study was made available by including quotes and several actual or direct data to enhance the validity of the study outcomes.

Additionally, it is noteworthy that any topic related to Zimbabwe's socio-economic and political issues, like remittances, is deemed sensitive by many, which afforded the likelihood of exaggerations and exclusion of essential information. Furthermore, the use of social media is equally sensitive because of the fear of being monitored, censored and persecuted for online activities. The researcher informed the participants that there would be no risk or maltreatment that they would encounter based on participating in the research. Correspondingly, the researcher notified the participants that the study was solely for educational use. The researcher indicated to respondents that pseudonyms would be used and that privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality would be respected.

6.9 Limitations of the research

On a broad spectrum, the objective of the thesis was to examine the role of social media in the food remitting process of Zimbabwean Migrants in Cape Town, South Africa. The researcher methodically and analytically conducted the study. Additionally, this provided a robust foundation in attending to the aim and objectives of the study. However, the study had some limitations. First, the covid19 pandemic restrictions and environment made it challenging to find some of the respondents to partake in this research. Secondly, some participants were sceptical about participating in the study because of the distress or possibility of experiencing prejudice, hate, judgement and persecution. Third, for some participants, the worry of getting arrested because of living in South Africa unlawfully was a concern. Lastly, the study is based on small sample size. There is a need for additional studies based on larger sample sizes that examine the investigated themes.

The researcher used social networks to find participants to address some challenges. Participants cooperated after being informed that the research was exclusively for educational application. And that pseudonyms were to be applied and guarantee the concealment of their names, identities, views, and backgrounds. Explaining and adherence to the covid19 pandemic protocols and regulations were helpful. This research was conducted in an urban locale; not all food-remitting Zimbabweans residing in Cape Town participated in the study. In that regard, the findings of this study do not embody the universal viewpoints of the population or sites under consideration. Therefore, the results and conclusions of this research cannot be generalized or epitomize the experiences of all Zimbabweans in Cape Town, South Africa. The researcher suggests that future research work with sufficient capital and more extensive projects.

6.10 Chapter conclusion

This chapter focused on the research methodology of the study. First, the section discussed the philosophical underpinning of the research. Subsequently, it moved to the mixed-method practice, which consists of qualitative and quantitative research techniques. Additionally, the chapter discussed the research design, methodology, data collection instruments, sampling techniques, data analysis, data presentation, ethics statement, reliability and validity, and finally, the limitations of the research. In summary, the study utilised the pragmatic approach and mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) to provide a scientific, comprehensive and in-depth study. The next chapter pays specific attention to quantitative data analysis and discussions.

CHAPTER 7: QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION: FOOD REMITTANCES AND SOCIAL MEDIA

7.1 Introduction

This chapter is focused on the quantitative results and discussions the purposes of the thesis. These consist of first probing the causal effects of social media on the motivations for food remitting, second, finding out the role of social media as a facilitator and influence in the remittance channels. Third, to analyse the effects of social media on the nature, trends, and patterns of food remitting. Fourth, to investigate the challenges encountered when sending food back home and explore how social media help to address this. Lastly, exploring the role of the family or household members in the food remitting process in the context of social media use. The findings are based on the food remitting experiences of Zimbabwean migrants in Cape Town, South Africa.

7.2 Background and Demographic Information

Zimbabwean migrants are located across the inner city and other parts of Cape Town (Rule, 2018). Additionally, Crush, Chikanda and Tawodzera (2015) posit that migration from Zimbabwe to South Africa since the 1990s has been mixed, comprising individuals from diverse backgrounds, varied occupations, all age groups, all sexes, females, males and children. Some migrants travel for short term, and others long-term residence, some transfer remittances and conversely, some do not, some are skilled, and others are unskilled; the drivers of migration consist of political, economic and social facets (Crush, Chikanda and Tawodzera, 2015). The quantitative survey was conducted on 100 Zimbabwean nationals located in the southern and northern suburbs of Cape Town (Table 4) who transferred food remittances back home.

Table 4: Selected locations of the study

Location	Frequency	Percentage
Rondebosch	26	26%
Claremont	25	25%
Bellville	20	20%
Kenilworth	17	17%
Wynberg	12	12%
Total	100	100%
N = 100		

Source: Author's field survey 2020

In terms of gender dynamics, there was an even distribution: 50 males (50%) and 50 females (50%) who participated in the research (Table 5). The age categories included mostly economically-dynamic adults below the age of 60: 3% between 23 - 26; 17% between 27 - 30; 26% between 31 - 34; 26% between 35 - 38; 17% between 39 – 45; 9% between 46 – 50; and 2% aged between 51 or more years (Table 5). This study's marital status was 45% married, 42% single, 5% divorced, and 8% widowed (Table 5). The majority,75% of the participants, noted they were breadwinners, 15% indicated that their husbands were breadwinners, and 10% revealed that their wives were the breadwinners (Table 5). In relation to the number of dependents, 13% zero; 19% one; 22% two; 31% three; 11% four and 4% Five or more (Table 5).

Table 5: Background and demographic information

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	50	50%
	Female	50	50%
Age	23 - 26	3	3%
	27 - 30	17	17%
	31 - 34	26	26%
	35 - 38	26	26%
	39 - 45	17	17%
	46 - 50	9	9%
	51+	2	2%
Marital status	Married	45	45%
	Single	42	42%
	Divorced	5	5%
	Widowed	8	8%
Breadwinner	Myself	75	75%
	Husband	15	15%
	Wife	10	10%
Dependents	None	13	13%
	One	19	19%
	Two	22	22%
	Three	31	31%

	Four	11	11%
	Five+	4	4%
N = 100			

Source: Author's field survey 2020

In the context of education, the commitment and heritage of the Zimbabwean government's venturing into civil schooling in the last four decades were evident in the study. The highest level of education completed by the participants was 77% university, 17% secondary and 6% primary (Table 6). Before migrating to South Africa from Zimbabwe, 64% were unemployed, and 36% were employed (Table 6). It is not alarming that most of the participants were jobless in Zimbabwe before migrating to South Africa, considering that unemployment is a critical challenge in Zimbabwe. The unemployment rate in Zimbabwe is estimated to be at 95% (Nyanda and Makuyana, 2020: 21). As noted by respondents in this research, the current employment status of the Zimbabweans in South Africa revealed that 94% were employed, and 6% were unemployed (Table 6).

The employment types consisted of mainly economically active individuals: students 22%[4]; office workers 18%; waiters 16%; bartenders 12%; domestic workers 8%; health professionals 6%; teachers 6%; informal traders 6%; businessman/woman 4% and lecturers 2% (Table 6). In the context of income, 33 % earned a monthly income of R4001 – R8000; 23% between R8001 – R15000; 20% R20001 or more; 14% between R15001 – R20000 and 10% between R0 – R4000 (Table 6). Noteworthy is that the information on wages from diverse activities of the participants is approximations based on their answers. Some of their feedback is likely not to be the exact amounts. This is because salary/income information is sensitive and can be exaggerated or forgotten.

Table 6: Background and information of the research participants

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Education	Primary	6	6%
	Secondary	17	17%
	University	77	77%
Employment status in Zimbabwe	Yes	36	36%

[4] Notably, some participants migrated for other economic reasons but also decided to study (students) to enhance their chances of employment or remain documented migrants. Some students were also studying and working (employed).

	No	64	64%
Employment status in South Africa	Yes	94	94%
	No	6	6%
Income	R0 – R4000	10	10%
	R4001 – R8000	33	33%
	R8001 – R15000	23	23%
	R15001 – R20000	14	14%
	R20001+	20	20 %
Main occupations	office workers	18	18%
	students	22	22%
	waiters	16	16%
	bartenders	12	12%
	domestic workers	8	8%
	health professionals	6	6%
	teachers	6	6%
	businessman/woman	4	4%
	lecturers	2	2%
	informal traders	6	6%
N = 100			

Source: Author's field survey 2020

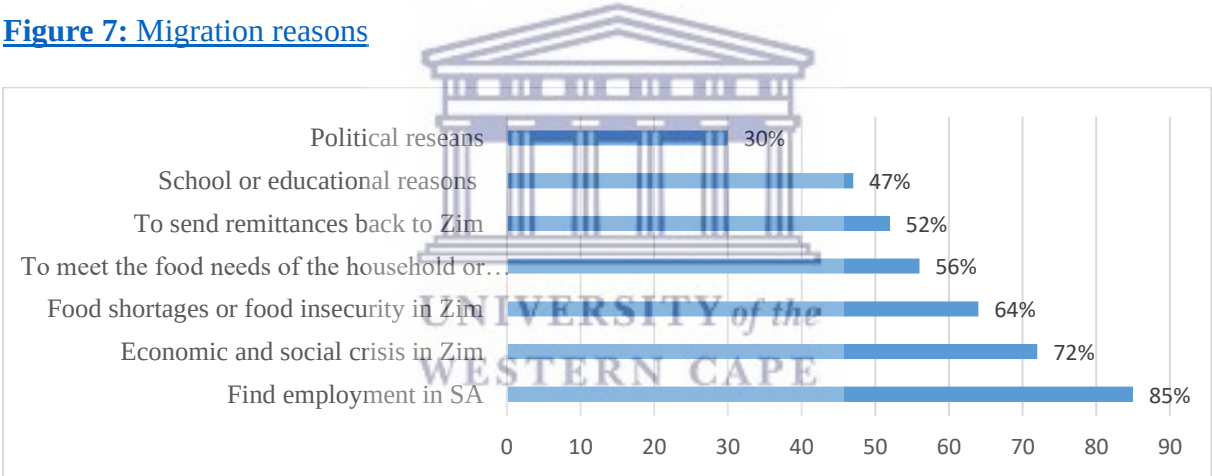
7.2.1 The decision to migrate to South Africa

Generally, international migration is triggered by social, political and economic aspects (Dinbabo and Badewa, 2020). According to Dinbabo and Carciotto (2015), in Sub-Saharan Africa, international migration is primarily an outcome of economic reasons. Also, South Africa has an extensive record of cross-border human mobility from neighbouring countries and regionally is the central migrant-receiving location (Bloch, 2010). Additionally, choices to migrate may be personal or share of a household livelihood subsistence plan, consequential in transnational responsibilities in the way of cash transfers and other remittances to kinship connections in the origin areas and beyond (Bloch, 2010). The respondents in this study were given the option to choose one or more reasons for migrating to South Africa from Zimbabwe. Consequently, the migration reasons were as follows: 85% to find employment in South Africa; 72% because of economic and social crisis in Zimbabwe; 64% for food shortages or food insecurity in Zimbabwe; 56% to meet the food needs of the family members or households in

Zimbabwe; 52% to transmit remittances back to Zimbabwe; 47% school or educational reasons and 30% political reasons (Figure 7).

The above is compatible with other studies and research that reflect on how the socio-economic crisis in Zimbabwe has led to the mass emigration of Zimbabweans to South Africa and other countries (see Crush, Chikanda, and Tawodzera, 2015; Crush and Tawodzera, 2017; Crush and Tevera, 2010; Tevera and Zinyama, 2002). Similarly, commenting on the crisis in Zimbabwe, Crush and Tevera (2010:2) asserted that "Given the ruinous state of the country's economy, it remains a puzzle as to who, why, and indeed how, anyone could stay". Likewise, Mudzonga (2021) argues that poor economic environments in Zimbabwe play a significant role in the irregular emigration of Zimbabweans. Several studies have shown how the socio-economic and political downturn has led to the mass emigration of Zimbabweans (Bonga, 2020; Chikanda, 2019; Mazwi, 2021). Similarly, Crush and Tevera (2010:1) characterized the mass out-migration of Zimbabweans as 'crisis driven' migration mainly caused by economic and social ruin and, to some extent, political repression.

Figure 7: Migration reasons



Source: Author's field survey 2020

Likewise, Crush and Tawodzera (2016), in their study on migration and food security in the context of Zimbabwean migrants in urban South Africa, found out that the reasons for migrating were to seek employment opportunities, living conditions, food shortages and hunger. Correspondingly, a 2016 study by Sithole and Dinbabo on youth migration and food security nexus in the context of Zimbabwean youths in Cape Town, South Africa, had comparable results. Their findings indicated that the migration decisions of the youth migrants were influenced by the socio-economic crisis, political crisis and food shortages. For African migrants, socio-economic imbalance, particularly the scarcity of prospects and anticipations of

improved livelihood or insecurities, motivates them to migrate (Dinbabo, Badewa and Yeboah, 2021). Therefore, on a broad spectrum, the research on migration in general and literature on the international migration of Zimbabweans, in particular, indicate that socio-economic crisis, political crisis, unemployment, food insecurity and food shortages are the main drivers of migration. Thus, the drivers of migration for Zimbabweans are a mix of social, economic and political factors.

7.3 Motivation to remit food and social media

Migrants are motivated to remit for various reasons based on pure altruism, pure self-interest, tempered altruism or enlightened self-interest (see Lucas and Stark, 1985; Mahmud, 2020; Kushnirovich, 2021; Oteng-Abayie et al., 2020; Parella, Silvestre and Petroff, 2021). The altruism drive entails the transfer of remittances because of selflessness, self-sacrifice and concern about the wellbeing of family, relatives or household members in the place of origin (Agarwal and Horowitz, 2002; Khamkhom and Jampaklay, 2020; Lucas and Stark, 1985). Pure self-interest involves a strategic and selfish decision to remit with the expectation to have returns from the recipients of the remittances such as inheritance, beneficial social networking and help in acquiring and maintaining assets like land, property or movable resources (Khamkhom and Jampaklay, 2020; Lucas and Stark, 1985; Parella, Silvestre and Petroff, 2021). Tempered altruism or enlightened self-interest entails sending remittances as part of the intertemporal, reciprocal benefits, contractual understanding between sender and recipient (Lucas and Stark, 1985). For example, remittances are motivated by an obligation to recompense the family for an initial investment in education or expenses related to migration (Siegel and Loschman, 2015).

All the respondents noted that they had transferred food items to Zimbabwe during their stay in South Africa. Concerning the main motivations to remit food, 43% indicated that they transmit food because of the requests from family or household members in Zimbabwe, 33% transfer simply because of basic goods that the receivers might need and 24% transfer food items because of the food shortages or insecurity in Zimbabwe (Table 7). The discoveries reinforce the findings by Sithole and Dinbabo (2016); their research revealed that food insecurity and food shortages in Zimbabwe and the need or responsibility to meet the food needs of households or family members back home trigger the sending of remittances. Social, economic and political crises in Zimbabwe are also drivers of emigration and remitting by Zimbabwean migrants (Crush and Tevera, 2010; Tevera & Chikanda, 2009). The

Zimbabweans who moved to other countries left a place with a ruined economy, unemployment, hyperinflation, oppression of political opponents and human rights abuses (Bloch, 2010). Therefore, the motivations for food remittances are generally driven by the consumption needs of households and family members back in the place of origin, where the settings are dire because of the socio-economic and political crisis.

Table 7: Motivation to remit food

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Motivation to remit food	Requests from family or household members who receive the food	43	43%
	Basic goods that the receivers might need	33	33%
	Food shortages or insecurity in Zimbabwe	24	24%
N = 100			

Source: Author's field survey 2020

Social media developed as the platform for linking ideas, people and information (Boyd, 2015). The role and emergence of social media as a source of information and connecting people in the motivations to remit was evident in this research. Social media played a valuable role in the drivers of food remitting. Accordingly, 66% of the participants revealed that they are inspired to transmit remittances back home because of the interactions or information sharing on social media with/by family/household members back home (Table 8). Moreover, in the study, 54% said they have household or family members they are connected to and communicate with that ask them on social media to transfer food items (Table 8). In addition, 44% noted that they transmit foodstuffs back home because of the information they see on social media (Table 8).

Furthermore, 40% of the respondents indicated that the decision to remit food was influenced to some extent by their communication with friends and the information they post or share on social media (Table 8). The findings reveal how the migrant networks on social media influence food remitting decisions through communication or information sharing. Therefore, social media platforms are enablers of interactions and data dissemination, which is helpful in the food-sending process.

Table 8: Motivations to remit food and social media

Variables	Category	Frequency	%
Inspired to send remittances because of the interactions or information sharing on social media with/by family/household members back home	Yes	66	66%
	No	34	34%
Household or family members you are connected to and communicate with on social media that ask you on social media to send food items	Yes	54	54%
	No	46	46%
Send stuffs back home because of the information you see on social media	Yes	44	44%
	No	56	56%
Decision to remit food was influenced to some extend by the communication with friends and information they post or share on social media	Yes	40	40%
	No	60	60%
N = 100			

Source: Author's field survey 2020

It is not surprising that the results of this study revealed the significance of social media as a networking tool in facilitating the remitting of food. Social networking among migrants and their friends, relatives, families and household members provides various economic opportunities. With the emergence of social media, interactions and relations between migrants and their networks are likely to improve. The above is echoed by Akanle, Fayehun and Oyelakin (2021). They argue that migrants remain linked by utilizing numerous platforms and media to give recommendations and valuable information to relatives or associates in the home country on what method they can follow to the destination.

They also note that information and communications technology (ICT) upsurges the migratory nature, which may cause a rise in the probability of chain migration (Akanle, Fayehun and Oyelakin, 2021). More importantly, numerous commercials on the internet show employment opportunities and migration agents' market on social media, which generally encompass sharing successful visas applications of previous customers on social media sites like Twitter,

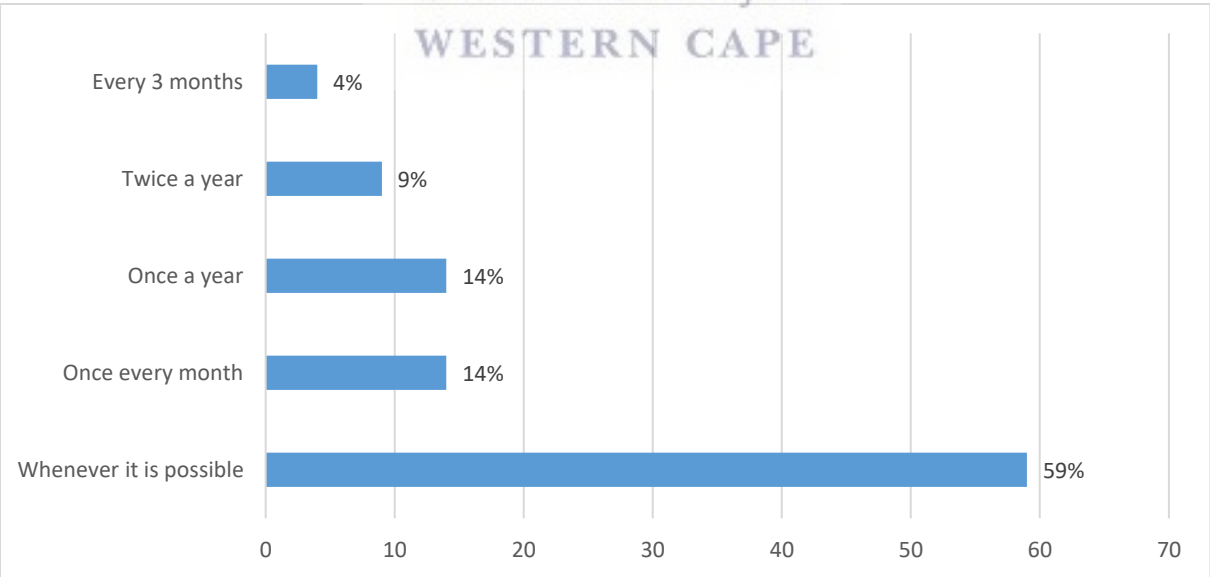
Instagram, Facebook and other media platforms, capable of influencing migration (Akanle, Fayehun and Oyelakin, 2021). The above experiences of information flow that migrants encounter, especially on social media, are also evident in the food remitting process, like in this study, where information exchange and distribution influenced the food remitting decisions.

7.4 The nature, trends and patterns of food remitting and social media

7.4.1 Nature, trends and patterns of remittances

The characteristics of remittance sending are generally diverse and include diverse backgrounds of senders, varied frequencies, varied items and various values/amounts (Sithole and Dinbabo, 2016; Tevera and Chikanda, 2009). And also bi-directional movement or reverse transfers (Abranches, 2014; Mazzucato, 2009, Mazzucato, 2011; Nepal, Park and Lee, 2020; Ratha, Mohapatra and Silwal, 2009). In addition, remittance sending involves social networking (Tevera and Chikanda, 2009). The research selected participants who at some point transferred food items or remittances to Zimbabwe; in other words, all the respondents have transmitted food remittances back to their origin. In terms of the frequency of food remitting, the study revealed that 59%, which is most of the participants, transfer food back home whenever it is possible, 14% every month, 4% every three months, 9% twice a year and 14% once a year (Figure 8). From the perspective of the complex nature of the food remitting process, it is understandable that most migrants transferred food whenever possible.

Figure 8: Food remitting frequency



Source: Author's field survey 2020

The top ten most remitted food items in this study are cooking oil (68%), followed by rice (62%), sugar (57%), mealie meal (50%), beans (46%), drink or juice (45%), peanut butter (45%), meat (41%), flour (40%) and salt (39%) (Table 9). It is noteworthy that although meat transfers are not high, they are afforded by digital transactions and mobile remitting applications like Mukuru and Malaicha[5]. In perspective, meat is a perishable food item; however, there are no instant direct physical food transfers through digital or mobile food remitting transactions. In this context, food remitting receivers are more likely to collect food items produced and collected in Zimbabwe or transported by mobile food transferring companies from other locations to Zimbabwe in advance.

Table 9: Remitted food items

Food type	Frequency	Percentage
Cooking oil	68	68%
Rice	62	62%
Sugar	57	57%
Mealie meal	50	50%
Beans	46	46%
Drinks or juice	45	45%
Peanut butter	45	45%
Meat	41	41%
Flour	40	40%
Salt	39	39%
Jam	38	38%
Milk	31	31%
Kapenta	29	29%
Soups or spices	28	28%
Tinned tomatoes and onions	27	27%
Nuts	26	26%
Cereals	26	26%
Tinned fish	24	24%
Bread	22	22%
Honey	21	21%
Vegetables	20	20%

[5] The 'Malaicha' is the mobile application or mobile services for transmitting remittances. It is different from the informal cross-border transport operators that are used to transfer remittances and labelled interchangeably in the literature (Nyamunda, 2014; Nzima, 2017; Thebe and Mutyatyu, 2017), as 'malayitsha', 'omalayitsha', 'omalayisha' and 'malayisha'.

Tea	20	20%
Eggs	17	17%
Fruits	15	15%
Margarine	14	14%

Source: Author's field survey 2020

The estimates provided by the respondents on the amount spent on buying food each time they transferred food to Zimbabwe were: 0 – R1000 (47%); R1001 – R2000 (20%); R2001 – R3000 (15%); R3001 – R4000 (9%) and R4001 + (9%). The study found a correlation between the amount spent on buying food each time they remit and the average monthly income. For example, all those who had a monthly income of R0 – R4000 remitted food items valued at R1000 or less, majority of those who transmitted foodstuffs worth R3001 – R4000+ had monthly earnings of R15001 or more (Table 10). In the same context, the majority of those who remitted food worth R3001 – R4000 or more were professionals with decent jobs like office workers and health professionals; on the contrary, most of the waiters, bartenders, domestic workers and informal traders mainly remitted food worth between R0 – R1000 (Table 11). The above indicates that income and occupation significantly influenced the amounts of food remittances transferred by migrants in South Africa to families and households in Zimbabwe.

Table 10: Income and amount spend to purchase food to remit

Income	**Amount spend on food to remit**					
	0 – R1000	R1001 – R2000	R2001 – R3000	R3001 – R4000	R4001 +	Total
R0 – R4000	10	0	0	0	0	10
R4001 – R8000	29	3	1	0	0	33
R8001 – R15000	8	9	5	1	0	23
R15001 – R20000	0	6	3	3	2	14
R20001+	0	2	6	5	7	20
Total	47	20	15	9	9	100
N = 100						

Source: Author's field survey 2020

Table 11: Occupation and amount spend to purchase food to remit

Occupation	Amount spend on food to remit					
	0 – R1000	R1001 – R2000	R2001 – R3000	R3001 – R4000	R4001 +	Total
Office workers	0	3	3	7	5	18
Student	11	6	5	0	0	22
Waiters	14	1	1	0	0	16
Bartenders	9	3	0	0	0	12
Domestic workers	8	0	0	0	0	8
Health professionals	0	3	2	1	0	6
Teachers	0	0	2	0	4	6
Businessman/woman	0	2	1	1	0	4
Lecturers	0	1	1	0	0	2
Informal traders	5	1	0	0		6
Total	47	20	15	9	9	100
N = 100						

Source: Author's field survey 2020

The above shows that although the literature and research at the global, continental and regional levels on cross-border remittances mainly focus on cash remittances and pay limited attention to in-kind remittances, there is evidence of in-kind, most notably food remittances. The bias is alarming and significant given the value of food remittances to the consumption and livelihoods of many families and households in various communities. This study revealed that Zimbabwean migrants from diverse professionals and income brackets transmit food remittances back home to support their household and family units.

7.4.2 Reverse remittances

Noteworthy, this study adds to the empirical evidence and body that have revealed the existence of reverse remittances. Thus, family, friends and household members in the place of origin also transfer food items to their migrant relatives in the destination areas. This is consistent with the emerging literature (Abranches, 2014; Mazzucato, 2009, Mazzucato, 2011; Nepal, Park and Lee, 2020; Ratha, Mohapatra and Silwal, 2009; Yeboah, Boamah and Appai, 2021), which shows that remittances are not one-directional but are bi-directional. The transmission of food remittances in this research indicated that there are bi-directional transfers. A small number of respondents (33%) revealed that they receive food items from Zimbabwe. They receive food remittances because they like them and are stapled/traditional/popular food items in Zimbabwe. Regarding the frequency of receiving food items from Zimbabwe, the participants revealed that

it was mainly whenever possible. Amongst those who receive reverse food transfers, the primary sources were from family/relatives/household members (81.82%), then friends 12.12% and workmates and colleagues (6.06%) (Table 12).

Table 12: Senders of reverse remittances

Senders of reverse remittances	Freq.	Percentage
Family/relatives/household members	27	81.82%
Friends	4	12.12%
Workmates	2	6.06%
Total	33	100.00%
N = 33		

Source: Author's field survey 2020

The channels of reverse remittances included family/relatives/household members 48.48%, friends (27.27%), transport carriers (18.18 %) and workmates (6.06%) (Table 13). Noteworthy was that transport carriers were active in the transmission of food remittances to Zimbabwe from South Africa. They were also involved in the reverse transference of food items from Zimbabwe to South Africa. The most reverse remitted food items were madora 72.73%, mazowe 69.70%, maputi 57.58%, peanut butter 33.33%, cerevita 33.33% and dried meat 27.27% (Table 14).

Table 13: Reverse channels

Reverse channels	Freq.	Percentage
Family/relatives/household members	16	48.48%
Friends	9	27.27%
Workmates	2	6.06%
Transport carriers	6	18.18 %
Total	33	100.00%
N = 33		

Source: Author's field survey 2020

Table 14: Reverse remitted food items

Food type	Frequency	Percentage
Madora	24	72.73%
Mazowe	23	69.70%
Maputi	19	57.58%
Peanut butter	11	33.33%
Cerevita	11	33.33%
Dried meat	9	27.27%
N = 33		

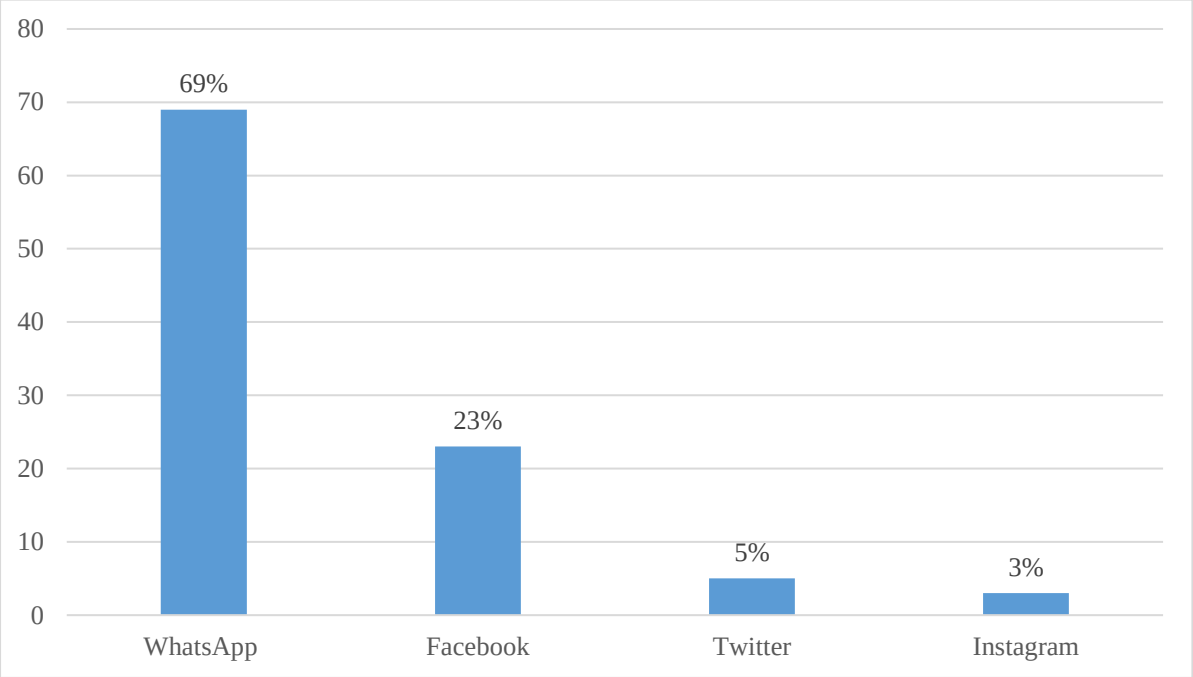
Source: Author's field survey 2020

Therefore, this demonstrates that cross-border food transfers are not one-directional; instead, they are bi-directional, illustrating the mutual social ties between the migrants and their family or household members left behind in the country of origin. Also, reverse remittances can assist in the food needs of migrants in times of crisis. For example, during the covid19 pandemic, challenges where the migrants may face unemployment, lack of dependable income, and limited resources could lead to poor access to food. Thus, the under-researched issues on international reverse remittances should receive more attention, considering that reverse transmissions are essential for the sentimental value or food needs of migrants.

7.4.3 The nature of food remitting and social media

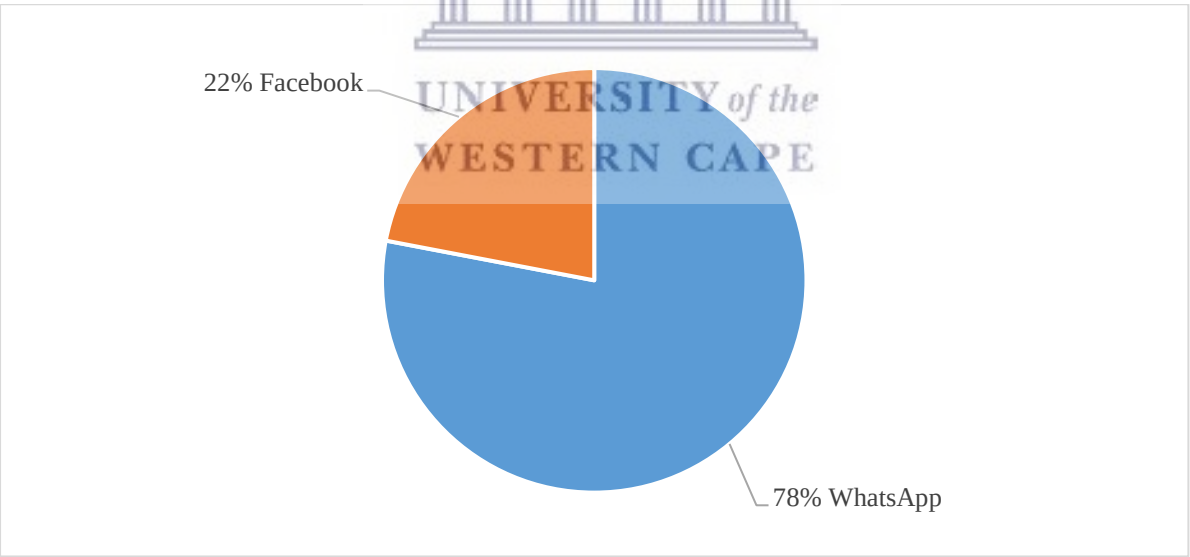
Borkert, Fisher and Yafi (2018:8) assert that "…migrants are digital agents of change who themselves post and share information in social media and digital social networks". Studies have shown the importance of social networking and information sharing in sending remittances (Dinbabo and Badewa, 2020; Tevera and Chikanda, 2009). Social media and social networking sites have become valuable for interaction, communication and content sharing amongst migrants and their networks (see Akanle, Fayehun and Oyelakin, 2021; Dekker and Engbersen, 2014; Dekker et al., 2018; McGregor and Siegel, 2013). Social media transform migrant networks (Dekker and Engbersen, 2014). Accordingly, the social media platform used the most by the participants was WhatsApp, 69%, followed by Facebook, 23%; Twitter, 5% and Instagram, 3% (Figure 9). Regarding the social media platform usage, the respondents mainly communicated the most on food transfer aspects on What's App (78%) and Facebook 22% (Figure 10).

Figure 9: Social media platforms used the most



Source: Author's field survey 2020

Figure 10: Social media platforms used the most to communicate food remittance issues



Source: Author's field survey 2020

It is not shocking that WhatsApp is the most used platform in general. And for issues related to food remittances considering that it is cheap, the messaging is instant and allows sharing of media in video, audio or picture form. Similarly, Jailobaev et al. (2021) and Sutikno et al.

(2016) argue that WhatsApp offers amenities for real-time locations, text and audio communication, unrestricted voice calls and exchanging images or videos, as well as for distribution of certain forms of documents. Rozgonjuk et al. (2021) note that Facebook also facilitates dynamic social communication, like messages, video and audio calls, generating and distributing personal content and also viewing the content of others. Likewise, mobile technology, mobile devices, and social media afford the rapid sharing of pictures, video, audio, and text on social networking sites (Ellison and Hardey, 2014). In perspective, WhatsApp and Facebook provide essential services in the food remitting processes through the capabilities to distribute or share information in messages, audio files, calls, videos and image formats.

Social interactions can result from social media content (Ellison et al., 2020). Therefore, content and communication on social media can provide valuable social, economic and political information. Social media communication or information shared was helpful in the food remitting process. For example, 49% of the participants indicated social media helped decide the type of food to transmit to Zimbabwe, 34% were helpful on the channels that transmit food to Zimbabwe and 17% on the period/time to transfer food items to Zimbabwe (Table 15).

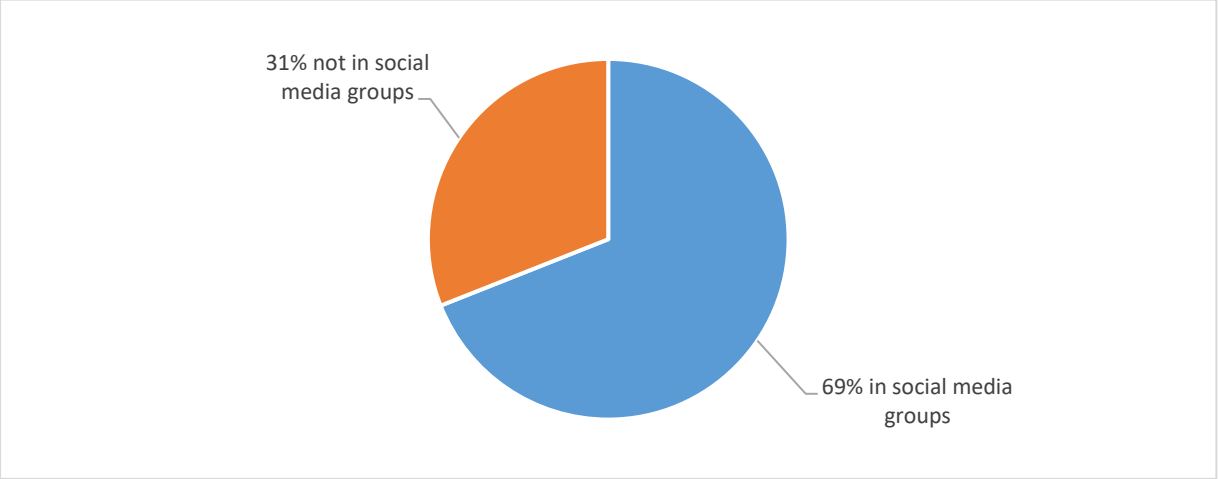
Table 15: Helpful information on social media

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
How to send food to Zimbabwe	34	34%
Type of food to send to Zimbabwe	49	49%
When to send food to Zimbabwe	17	17%
N = 100		

Source: Author's field survey 2020

From the perspective of social networking and social media groups, 69% of the participants noted that they are in a social media group that is helpful to them in the food remitting agenda (Figure 11).

Figure 11: Respondents in social media groups that facilitate food remitting



Source: Author's field survey 2020

In this research, among those in social media groups that help in the food remitting process, the groups were on WhatsApp 50 people (72.46%) and Facebook 19 people (27.54%). Worth mentioning amongst the 69 respondents in the social media groups, the groups were family or household members (53.62%), friends (24.64%) and fellow Zimbabweans (21.74%) (Table 16). WhatsApp was the most utilized social media site in this study. The potent usage of WhatsApp was predictable because of the numerous benefits of WhatsApp services. For example, Nitza and Roman (2016) posit that WhatsApp communication can be done instantly, individually, or in a group setting. Hence the interaction can be done with numerous persons simultaneously (Baishya and Maheshwari, 2020; Nitza and Roman (2016). In addition, Dekker and Engbersen (2014) postulate that social media help migrants improve the likelihood of preserving robust relations with family and friends and attend to weak connections related to the migration process. Thus, in this research, social media assisted the food remittance sending migrants to have valuable ties and information flow between them and family/household members, friends and fellow Zimbabweans, which was helpful in the food remitting process.

Among the 69 individuals in social media groups related to food remitting was that: 53.62% noted that the condition to join the family or household members' groups on social media was that one had to be a family or household member. 24.64% noted that one had to be a friend to be part of the social media group of friends. And 21.74% revealed that to join the social media group with fellow Zimbabweans, one had to be a Zimbabwean. Therefore, robust relational trust on social media provides circumstances where there is an uncomplicated conversation on various ideas and opportunities related to food remitting. The trust, bonding and bridging

between migrants, family/household members, friends, and fellow Zimbabweans helped counter the possible obstacles in the food-sending process.

Table 16: Members of social media groups that facilitate food remitting

Group members	Frequency	Per cent
Family or household members	37	53.62%
Friends	17	24.64%
Fellow Zimbabweans	15	21.74%
Total	69	100.00%
N = 69		

Source: Author's field survey 2020

Social networking sites reinforce the upholding of established social networks; additionally, they assist strangers to associate because of mutual interests and undertakings (Boyd and Ellison, 2007). Social media enables the development of social capital (Ellison, Wohn and Greenhow, 2014). According to Merisalo and Jauhiainen (2021), social media facilitates social capital amongst migrants. Similarly, social capital formed on social media was helpful for food remitting Zimbabweans because it provided a setting where it was unproblematic or uncomplicated to uphold networks with solid links. Such as relations with associates and family or household members. And also in sustaining fragile relations with weak ties or strangers, like with fellow Zimbabweans.

This aligns with how Putnam (2000) conceptualises social capital as bridging weak relations across various social units and bonding in strong links across similar groups. Similarly, as argued by Woolcock and Narayan (2000), in general, and in simple terms, the concept of social capital is that an individual's family, contacts, networks, friends, and acquaintances amount to an essential asset that can be reliant on in times of crisis, relished or appreciated, and used for material gain. Social networking on social media groups reflects the importance of social capital in the migration process or specifically in migration outcomes like food remittance sending.

As Woolcock and Narayan (2000:225) posit in the context of social capital, “It’s not what you know, it's who you know". In the above context, bonding social capital, which consisted of people with robust or close associations, was illustrated by individual and group connections or networking on social media. The bonding was between the respondents and friends, family and household members. The notion is based on the interpretation of bonding social capital,

which is relations amongst the same demographic group, for example, family members, close friends and neighbours (Dunwoodie et al., 2020; Szreter and Woolcock, 2004; Woolcock, 2001; Woolcock and Narayan, 2000). Bonding connections are founded on solid relations, comprising trust, and are horizontally created (Dunwoodie et al., 2020). Additionally, bridging social capital, which involves weak ties, was demonstrated by the communal or group associating or networking on social media between the participants and fellow Zimbabweans. The characterization of bridging social capital is that it is horizontally founded, inclusive and involves relations amongst individuals from distant connections, diverse backgrounds and various demographic groups (Dunwoodie et al., 2020; Page-Tan, 2021; Szreter and Woolcock, 2004; Woolcock and Narayan, 2000).

The importance of bridging and bonding social capital in food remittances enrich relations, promotes interactions, develops trust, and communally exchanges information or opinions. Similarly, Ellis (2003) argues that migration broadens social networks and, as a result, heightens social capital, and incomes or remittances from migration for that reason can play an essential part in instigating and maintaining these incremental developments. Correspondingly, Dinbabo and Badewa (2020) postulate that the networking or interaction amongst migrants in the place of destination can additionally support enhanced social capital and remittances. Among those in social media groups, the social media groups were helpful on how to transfer food to Zimbabwe as noted by 46.38%; types of food to transmit to Zimbabwe 37.68% and 15.94% when to transfer the food items to Zimbabwe (Table 17). For that reason, social media groups are necessary because of their facilitating role in communicating and broadcasting information related to the drivers of food remitting, channels, food types and periods to transmit food items from South Africa to Zimbabwe.

Table 17: Helpful information related to food remittances in social media groups

Category	Frequency	Per cent
How to send food to Zimbabwe	32	46.38
Types of food to send to Zimbabwe	26	37.68
When to send the food items to Zimbabwe	11	15.94
Total	69	100.00%
N = 69		

Source: Author's field survey 2020

The uniqueness of social media platforms is that they allow enhanced movements and access to helpful information. Social Media, like Twitter and Facebook, provide services to generate content and allow membership in content-based groups, where members can discover valuable information (Guidi, Michienzi and De Salve, 2020). Social media enables the generation and sharing of information (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Likewise, social media capabilities were evident in this study, where information on food remittances was created and exchanged on social media. Correspondingly, Jailobaev et al. (2021) posit that WhatsApp also enables instant communication within groups, connects individuals from different places and time zones, and generates a group of members with the same agenda.

De Salve et al. (2019) argue that social media platforms enable the creation of groups founded on the associations recognized among members, on groups demarcated by users, therefore permitting group members to share content only with a collection of particular contacts. For example, Facebook enables creating and management of virtual communities where content is shared and linked to specific subjects (De Salve et al., 2019). Social media are critical in transferring food remittances because it is inexpensive and efficient and can help users plan and organize their activities. The study revealed that 49% have been in a situation where they unexpectedly faced an emergency, like a lack of money or resources to buy foodstuffs and transfer food items back home, then used social media to communicate and successfully get assistance (Table 18).

This research found that 60% have been in a situation where they assisted someone they know who had unexpectedly faced an emergency, like a lack of money or resources to buy food and transfer food items back home. The communication was conducted through social media (Table 18). 63% noted that they have coordinated with people on social media on the food remitting process (Table 18). 70% indicated that they believe and trust the information related to food remittances that they get on social media (Table 18). Social media or virtual connections dynamically change the features of migrant networks (Dekker and Engbersen, 2014). Accordingly, in this study, online links and interactions on social media helped emerge situations or settings where coordination was necessary.

Table 18: Food remitting circumstances and social media

Variable	Category	Freq.	%
Have you been in a situation where you unexpectedly face an emergency like a lack of money or resources to buy foodstuffs to send back home, then use social media to communicate and successfully get assistance	Yes	49	49%
	No	51	51%
Have you been in a situation you assisted someone you know who has unexpectedly faced an emergency like a lack of money or resources to buy food and send food items back home, and the communication was done through the use of social media	Yes	60	60%
	No	40	40%
Have coordinated together with people on social media on any part of the food remitting process	Yes	63	63%
	No	37	37%
Believe and trust the information related to food remittances that you get on social media	Yes	70	70 %
	No	30	30%
N = 100			

Source: Author's field survey 2020

Social media allows users to create social or interactive associations. Therefore, if social media tools were unavailable, the connections between migrants and their networks were likely not instigated, continued or created. In this study, social media platforms were useful as cheap and speedy communication tools during emergencies related to food remitting. In addition, social media-fueled the possibility of combined and joint activities related to food sending, as evidenced in this study, where participants coordinated with the people in their network when they wanted to transmit food transfers back home.

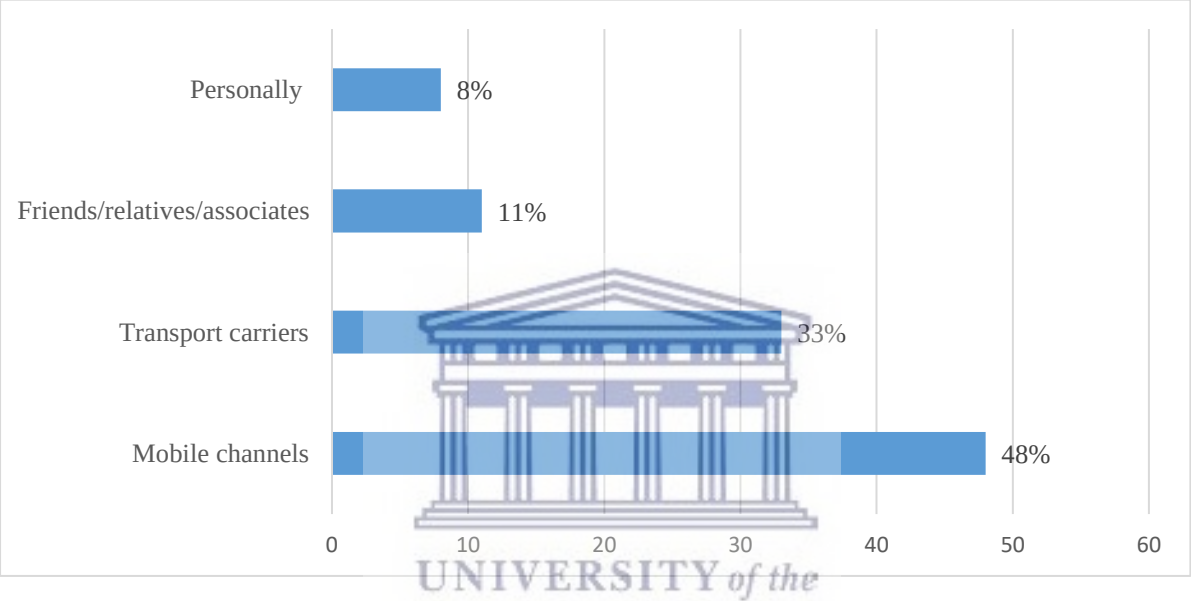
7.5 Channels of food remitting and social media

7.5.1 Channels of food remitting

Formal or informal channels can transmit remittances from the destination areas to the places of origin (Imran, Zhong and Moon, 2021; Maphosa, 2007; Ratha, 2007). However, in-kind remittances are primarily remitted through informal channels (Nzima, 2017). The study

revealed that Zimbabwean migrants use various ways to transfer food items back to their place of origin. The channels include formal/semi-formal and regulated channels like Mukuru or Malaicha platforms and informal channels like bus and transport carriers, friends, relatives, or family members. In some cases, the migrants carry food items when they travel to Zimbabwe. Regarding the specific channels primarily used for sending food back home, 48% mainly used mobile remitting applications like Mukuru or Malaicha. 33% said they primarily used carriers like buses/trucks/taxis, 8% personally when they go home, and 11% friends, relatives or associates (Figure 12).

Figure 12: Main food remitting channels



Source: Author's field survey 2020

In other investigations (Nzima, 2017; Tevera and Chikanda, 2009), informal channels are preferred to transfer remittances. On the contrary, as evident in this study, the use of formal/semiformal or mobile channels such as Mukuru or Malaicha to remit food by almost half the respondents can be explained by the current covid19 pandemic. For example, in South Africa, the restriction caused by the coronavirus entailed the closure of borders and limited human-to-human contact. The conditions meant that although more expensive than informal channels, the most accessible way to transmit food remittances was through formal/semiformal, digital transactions or mobile channels. Mobile channels were selected because they were the most accessible and most reliable, whereas transport carriers were mainly chosen because they were cheap (Table 19).

Table 19: Food remitting channels and reasons for the choice of channel

Channel	Reasons for choice of channel					
	Cheap/affordable	Most accessible	Most reliable	Family advice	Friends' advice	Total
Transport carriers	23	1	2	5	2	33
Mobile/digital	2	22	22	1	1	48
Personally	5	1	2	0	0	8
Friends, relatives, or associates	6	2	0	3	0	11
Total	36	26	26	9	3	100
N = 100						

Source: Author's field survey 2020

The use of digital/mobile channels is noteworthy because sending in-kind remittances, especially food, in the literature on remittances is noted primarily through informal channels. The emergence of goods remitting through digital transactions/mobile technologies like Mukuru and Malaicha mobile Apps in the global south has enabled migrants to transfer in-kind remittances, including food, back to their home countries. The emergence of mobile technologies for food remitting provides both opportunities and problems for migrants. Although limited to cash transfers, the emerging literature on mobile/digital remittances indicates that they are quicker, user-friendly, cheaper and enable the financial inclusion of migrants (Apiors and Suzuki, 2018; Guermond, 2022; Kitimbo 2021; Munyegera and Matsumoto, 2016; Nyanhete, 2017; Siegel and Fransen, 2013). On the contrary, the main challenge they have is limited access.

The issue of access likely and mainly affect undocumented migrants who might find it difficult or impossible to use formal and digital/mobile food remitting channels. Accordingly, using mobile and formal remitting applications like Mukuru and Malaicha, requires the users' information or paperwork such as the source of funds, visas, passports or identification credentials. Therefore, undocumented migrants may inevitably only have access to informal remitting channels. More than half of those who used informal transport carriers were a combination of waiters, bartenders, domestic workers and informal traders (Table 20). Undocumented migrants prefer informal channels because of the absence of distress concerning expulsion from the country or detention for residing in South Africa without proper immigration status. On the contrary, mobile and formal/semiformal channels were popular amongst office workers, students, health professionals, and teachers (Table 20). The above

professionals were likely documented migrants, making registering and using digital/mobile food remitting channels easy.

Table 20: Food remitting channels and professions

Professions	Channels				
	Transport carriers	Mobile/digital	Personally	Friends, relatives or associates	Total
Office workers	3	15	0	0	18
Students	8	10	2	2	22
Waiters	7	6	2	1	16
Bartenders	6	4	1	1	12
Domestic workers	3	3	1	1	8
Health professionals	0	6	0	0	6
Teachers	1	3	0	2	6
Businessman/woman	1	0	2	1	4
Lecturers	1	1	0	0	2
Informal traders	3	0	0	3	6
Total	33	48	8	11	100
N = 100					

Source: Author's field survey 2020

Nzima (2017) concurs by noting that the selection of remittance passages used is probably cautiously considered to evade deportation, arrest or being noticed by law enforcement and other officials. Therefore, decisions to use particular remitting channels are made against the backdrop of wanting to capitalize on any possible benefits and diminish the chances of facing any hindrances. Research has revealed that Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa prefer the use of informal channels such as transport operators like drivers of buses or taxis and, in some instances, friends, family members and relatives when sending goods back to Zimbabwe (Chikanda & Tawodzera, 2017; Nyamunda, 2014; Nzima, 2017; Thebe & Mutyatyu, 2017). A corresponding 2022 study by Apatinga, Asiedu and Obeng on the contribution of non-cash remittances to the welfare of households in Ghana revealed that most of the in-kind remittances were sent via informal passages such as buses, friends and relatives.

The study explained that informal channels were preferred. There was the presence of social networks among migrants, friends and family that afforded personal ties for the informal transfer of in-kind remittances (Apatinga, Asiedu and Obeng, 2022). Social relations are founded on reliance, dependence, connections and networking. This is central to informal food remitting channels because of the information seeking, information gathering, and information

provided on how to remit, when, and what to remit. Noteworthy in the informal channels in the remittances passage between Zimbabwe and South Africa is the 'omalayitsha' or 'malayitsha' remittances system. This system entails cross-border couriers or transporters operators that act as a channel of remitting cash and goods and moving people across the South Africa-Zimbabwe border (Nyamunda, 2014; Nzima, 2017; Thebe & Mutyatyu, 2017). Migrants prefer the Malayitsha system because it is affordable and accessible (Nzima, 2017; Thebe & Mutyatyu, 2017). It is not surprising that this study uncovered the use of informal channels by migrants, considering that they are inexpensive and reachable.

Crush and Caesar (2016) argue that remittances in kind, especially food items, are overlooked in the studies and research on international remittances because the transfers are undertaken informally. Therefore, it explains the dearth of data on cross-border food remittances' quantity, importance and effect (Crush and Caesar, 2016). Cash remittances have received more attention because they are primarily transferred via formal channels like banks and money transfer service providers like Western Union, World Remit, Mama Money and Money Gram. However, it is notable that with the advance in mobile and digital technology, in-kind remittances like food can now be transmitted via registered and formal channels like Mukuru and Malaicha applications, as evidenced in this study.

7.5.2 Channels of food remitting and social media

There is a connection between the remittances behaviour of migrants and their networks; for example, enhanced information sharing is essential concerning inexpensive channels to transmit (Fenoll and Kuehn, 2018). Likewise, Akanle, Fayehun and Oyelakin (2021) posit that ICT and social media are crucial to international migration choices, access of migrants and networks to social influences and issues driving international migration. And ICT and social media are highly significant in how migrants and relatives or families uphold and/or lessen associations and access to remittances and their usage (Akanle, Fayehun and Oyelakin, 2021). In addition, Tevera and Chikanda (2009) reveal that social networks impact the channels by which informal transfers are conducted; they noted that functional social links between migrants, family associates and friends make personal relations and local information essential for informal remittance transfers. The emergence of social media is likely to have an operational impact on the issues related to remittances. In this study, the informal and formal transfer of food remittances were influenced by social networking on social media.

Social media played a significant role in the food transmitting channels. 74% of the respondents noted that the channels they use the most to transfer food back to Zimbabwe are based on social

media communication through messages and calls (Table 21). Also, 58% of the participants revealed that the channels they use the most to transmit food back to Zimbabwe are also based on social media posts and news (Table 21). In this study, social media communication or information helped find the cheapest channel to remit food to Zimbabwe 29%; accessible channels to transfer food to Zimbabwe 27%; quickest channels to transmit food to Zimbabwe 25% and reliable channels to transfer food to Zimbabwe 19% (Table 22).

Table 21: Food remitting channels and social media

Variable	Category	Freq.	%
The channels you use the most to send food back to Zimbabwe are also based on social media communication through messages and calls	Yes	74	74%
	No	26	26%
The channels you use the most to send food back to Zimbabwe are also based on social media posts and news	Yes	58	58%
	No	42	42%
N = 100			

Source: Author's field survey 2020

Table 22: Social media and choice of channels

Category	Frequency	Per cent
Cheapest channel to remit food to Zimbabwe	29	29%
Accessible channels to send food to Zimbabwe	27	27%
Quickest channels to send food to Zimbabwe	25	25%
Reliable channels to transfer food to Zimbabwe	19	19%
Total		100.00%
N = 100		

Source: Author's field survey 2020

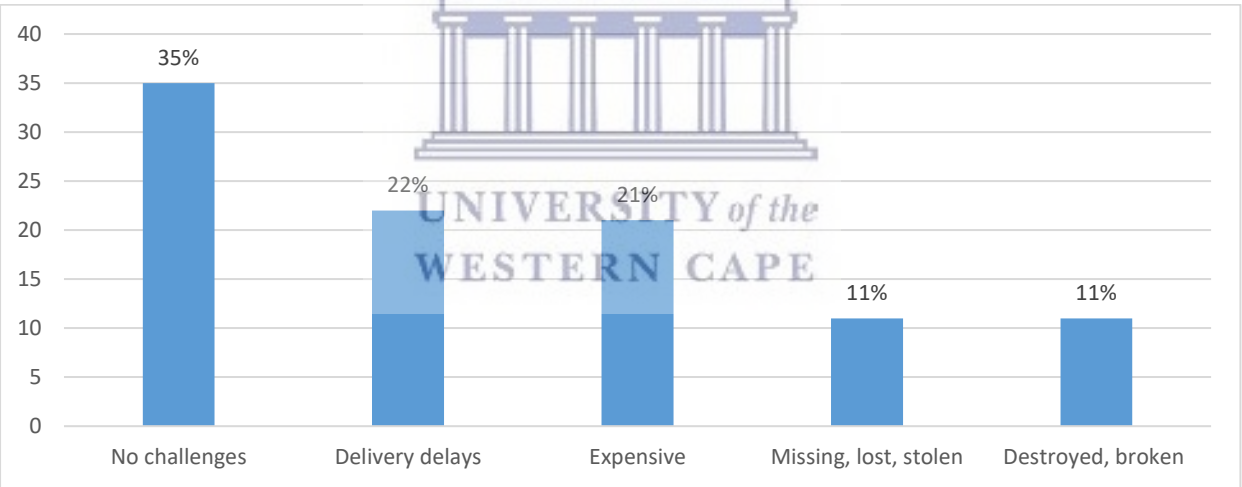
The results revealed that through the utilization of social media and social networking, the connection between migrants and their friends, associates, households or family members uncovered the significance of social capital in accessing and utilizing food remitting channels. The form of social capital present in this study concerning food remitting channels is bonding and bridging through communication and interaction between migrants and their friends,

associates, households or family members. Being part of a social media group or personal connection is a progressively influential mode of communal relations or a place where ideas can be exchanged irrespective of distance and conditions in origin and destination areas. In the context of channels for remitting food, social media technology reinforces the capacity to link, associate and communicate about the cheapest, accessible and speedy way to transfer food items from the destination to the origin locations.

7.6 Food remitting challenges and social media

The process of food remitting also has its challenges; this is evident in both formal and informal channels. In the study, the respondents indicated that the challenges they face are delivery delays (22%), expensive to remit food (21%), destroyed/broken foodstuffs (11%), missing/lost/stolen (11%), and 35% had no challenges (Figure 13). Notably, delivery delays/misplaced/lost/stolen/destroyed/broken food items were common amongst transport carriers (Table 23). Participants' comparable circumstances are evident in other studies (Nzima, 2017; Tevera and Chikanda, 2009) that indicated that remitting to Zimbabwe has challenges, including high-priced charges, missing, misplaced, delayed, stolen, spoiled or broken goods.

Figure 13: Food remitting challenges



Source: Author's field survey 2020

Evidently, for digital/mobile channels, the most common challenge was that, to some, they were expensive (Table 23). And challenges mainly encountered through the use of informal channels such as transport carriers, friends, relatives or associates were delivery delays, missing, lost, stolen, destroyed, or broken food items (Table 23). Notably, 44% of the respondents noted that social media communication, exchange of information or posts helped deal with food remitting challenges. Social media has tools or resources to assist food remitting

migrants for communication or information seeking. For example, social media interaction with the carriers can help understand and solve delivery delays/missing/lost/stolen/destroyed/broken foodstuffs.

Table 23: Food remittance channels and challenges

Channels	Challenges					
	Delivery delays	Missing, lost, stolen	Destroyed, broken	Expensive	No challenges	Total
Buses, Trucks, Taxis, transport, carriers, couriers	14	11	7	0	1	33
Mobile (mukuru)	1	0	0	6	12	19
Mobile (malaicha)	0	0	0	13	16	29
Myself when I go home	0	0	0	2	6	8
Friends, relatives, people I know	7	0	4	0	0	11
Total	22	11	11	21	35	100
N = 100						

Source: Author's field survey 2020

7.6 Chapter conclusion

The findings of this section indicated and revealed a connection between social media and the food remitting process for the Zimbabwean migrants in Cape Town, South Africa. Accordingly, the discoveries and analysis of this chapter uncovered several insights that show the emergence of social media in the transfer of food remittances. First, social media played an essential role in the drivers of food remitting. Second, social media was vital in facilitating and influencing the channels used to remit food. Third, social media impacted the nature of food remitting. Fourth, social media played a significant role in addressing the challenges faced in transferring food back home. Finally, the family or household members proved crucial in the food remitting process in the context of social media use. Social networking, especially migrant networks on social media, was necessary to transmit helpful information related to the transfer of food remittances. In the above context, social media is an essential social capital resource because of its enabling bonding and bridging in the food remitting process. The next chapter focuses on qualitative data analysis and discussion.

8. CHAPTER 8: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION: FOOD REMITTANCES AND SOCIAL MEDIA

8.1 Introduction

This chapter is attentive to the qualitative findings and discussions connected to the thesis's objectives. These comprise examining the effects of social media on the motivations for food remitting and uncovering the role of social media as a facilitator and influence in the food remittance channels. Third, analyzing the effects of social media on the nature, trends and patterns of food remitting. Fourth, discover the challenges encountered when sending food back home and explore how social media help address the problems. Finally, exploring the role of the family or household members in the food remitting process in the context of social media use. The results are founded on the food remitting experiences of Zimbabwean migrants in Cape Town, South Africa.

8.2 Background of participants

The qualitative data participants comprised four women and six men aged between 27 and 59. Their professions included postgraduate students, lecturers, bartender, waiter, teacher and office workers. In addition, the drivers and characteristics of their food remitting activities differed. Also discussed are the channels they used to transfer food, their use of social networking or social media, and their varied challenges. The social ties, social media interaction, and content sharing amongst the food-remitting migrants and their families, friends or networks were multifaceted.

8.3 Discussion

8.3.1 Motivations of food remitting

When attentive to the impacts of remittances on development, academic debates and policy dialogues focus more on cash remittances and overlook in-kind remittances, including food remitting (Crush and Caesar, 2016; Crush and Caesar, 2020). The motivations to transfer food remittances reveal how the food transfers should be an integral part of the remittances and development discussions and research. Most participants indicated that family requirements drove the motivation to remit food. Thus families in the home country asked for help with basic needs considering the dire socio-economic conditions in Zimbabwe. The Covid19 pandemic has created challenges in many sectors. Accordingly, Dinbabo (2020) posits that the worldwide plague is an increasing danger to many communities' socio-economic welfare and health. Also, May and Mentz-Coetzee (2021) assert that globally, the covid19 pandemic has lessened buying capacity and the ability to manufacture and dispense food, leading to the escalation of care

tasks. The Covid19 pandemic has a negative potential, especially in the global south and poor communities, leading to limited access to food because of unemployment and loss of income. The channelling of food remittances was likely to be affected by transport and movement restrictions. Diana, a female office worker, aged 32, indicated that she was recently motivated to transmit food back home because prices in Zimbabwe skyrocketed and the impact of the Covid19 pandemic. This led to family members in the place of origin asking for assistance with food items and other essential commodities.

Chipo, a female lecturer and post-graduate student – aged 31, revealed that she also transmits food to Zimbabwe mainly because of the circumstances at home. She noted that unlike in 2008, when food was unavailable in Zimbabwe, she sent foodstuffs because the prices in Zimbabwe were extremely high for the family to access. An interesting point noted by Chipo was that she has instances where she bought Zimbabwe-produced food items in South Africa to transfer home, and the food items were less expensive in South Africa. Also, Chipo noted that "…my reasons for sending back food are mainly based on the requests that are made by my family". Similarly, Mary, a female postgraduate student aged 30, indicated the same sentiments by saying, "…I am influenced by the shortages you know they communicate with me sometimes to say, we have run out of basics". Tawanda, Alex and Brighton transfer food to support their relatives or families that do not afford to buy essential food items.

The Zimbabwean migrants revealed that their motives to transfer remittances back home are influenced by the situation in Zimbabwe, like the socio-economic crisis, high food prices, food shortages and family needs. The connection between the motivations to transfer food and the circumstances in Zimbabwe is not surprising considering that other studies (Crush and Tevera, 2010; Sithole and Dinbabo, 2016; Tevera & Chikanda, 2009) have noted the socio-economic predicament and food insecurity issues in Zimbabwe are drivers of migration and influence migrants to remit. Also, Ramachandran and Crush (2021) argue that in countries undergoing severe humanitarian disasters, remittances can assist in lessening the manifold economic and social adversities experienced by affected populations. Research on Zimbabwe revealed that in the absence of remittances, the impact of the disaster would have been enormously dire (Ramachandran and Crush, 2021). Migrants commonly emigrate from Zimbabwe to look for better opportunities to support themselves and their families or relatives back in their place of origin. In the case of this study, Zimbabwean migrants transmitted food items to address the

diverse challenges facing relatives and household members at home who have difficulties accessing basic food needs daily because of socio-economic disasters and food insecurity.

8.3.1.1 Motivations of food remitting, social media and social capital

Social media platforms are progressively becoming general sources of information on which migrants root their decisions (Akakpo and Bokpin, 2021; Dekker et al., 2018). Additionally, there is evidence that social media can be a valuable tool for sharing social capital in migration networks, creating new prospects for migrants (Ihejirika and Krtalic, 2021). Information flow and interaction between migrants and their networks are crucial to the food transferring process. In the context of remittances, the study by Tevera and Chikanda (2009) reveals that households consistently interact with their migrant members by phone and commonly send needs for emergent support. Along similar lines, social media platforms provide essential tools for interactions, information exchange and content broadcasting.

Social media information is noticeably the leading, abundant and most vigorous evidence source of human behaviour, generating novel prospects to comprehend persons, communities and humanity (Batrinca and Treleaven, 2015). Accordingly, the respondents revealed that social media plays a significant role in their motivation to transmit food back to Zimbabwe. For instance, Tonderai, a male post-graduate student aged 27, noted that he is influenced to transfer food home by his communication with family, mainly his siblings, through social media, especially WhatsApp, where the situation back home is discussed. Tonderai stated that:

> "so, I communicate with a lot of my siblings through WhatsApp, so you know sometimes they tell you about the situation back home, and in that way you are aware that okay, maybe you need to try and make sure you can send something to make sure you know, they get something to eat".

Tonderai's case illustrates the importance of social media sites like WhatsApp in connecting family members and bringing awareness of challenging situations back home, leading to the decision to transmit food items. Similarly, Tatenda, a male waiter aged 29, and Darren, a male student and bartender aged 35 years, mostly communicate on WhatsApp with their families where help concerning food is asked. Chipo mentioned that she is sometimes influenced by news on social media about starvation and food insecurity, which triggers her to interact with her family and see if they need food assistance. Chipo mentioned that:

> "I have also connected on social media to news reporting. So, you will find that certain things also come up there. But I mean, when I read some things, and you read, you

know the statistics of the individuals or the numbers of individuals that are starving or the individuals that are struggling with food security. The automatic reaction becomes to engage with my family about, you know, the situation they are in because I have a sibling at home. I also engage about how I can assist… So the awareness is there it then triggers me to engage in investigating further how much it relates, or how the food insecurity in Zimbabwe is affecting my family,"

Therefore, Chipo's experience reveals the valuable capability of social media. For example, the news on social media affords awareness of starvation or food insecurity in Zimbabwe, which triggers engagement on how family members can be supported. Diana indicated that she is driven to remit food by the conversations with family members, mainly on WhatsApp; she also noted the vital information on other social media platforms, particularly Facebook and Twitter. Diana also emphasised the importance of social media groups on WhatsApp and Facebook, including family groups, friends' groups, church groups and fellow Zimbabwean groups, that significantly motivate transferring food back home. In these groups, she noted that they chat about food prices, the situation back at home and how to send food back home, among other things. Diana said:

"I mean, on almost all the groups I'm part of, I think we have several family groups with different family members. I mean, we have a group for our nuclear family, we have groups who are extended families from the mother's side from the father's side, we have church groups that I'm part of, I'm in groups with friends. And in all those groups, at some point, we discussed the escalating food prices in Zimbabwe."

Social media groups are vital because they provide diverse perspectives and wide-ranging knowledge on various topics. For Diana, social media groups are valuable in providing information on the environment in Zimbabwe. Also, social media groups are helpful for interaction on the channelling of food, as indicated by Diana:

"And then, as those conversations go, we talk about how people in South Africa could be sending things home, and we also get the opportunity to ask how other people are also sending home. So in all of those groups, I can't think of any group where at some point, we have not had a discussion of sending things to Zimbabwe and just sharing ideas and suggestions on which way or method is best to use."

Diana's experience provides insights on social media as an essential resource, mainly social media groups with family, friends or church members, that affords helpful information such as

food prizes and channels to transfer food. Mary stated that she is influenced to remit by communicating with family members on WhatsApp who mention food and basic goods shortages. For Zimbabwean migrants, the information and interactions on social media motivate them to transmit food items. Brighton, a male lecturer aged 59 years old, noted that he follows the Mukuru or the Malaicha[6] social media pages, where their discounts and specials influence him to send food items to his family in Zimbabwe. Accordingly, corporations are keenly determined to advertise their services or products to expand the positive awareness of their brands using viral advertising on social networks, and social media platforms are deemed to be the vital focal point of marketing (Shareef et al., 2019).

Additionally, social media is characterized by online communication and messaging sites (McIntyre, 2014). Therefore, the social media platforms used by the participants of this study, like Facebook, WhatsApp and Twitter, are vital in influencing migrants to remit food through the discussions, exchange of information, interactions and access to news on the sites. Active interaction on social media sites characteristically may assist users in fostering trust and reliance. In the context of the motivation to remit food, the networking between migrants and their families or household members, relatives, friends, and associates shows the importance of social capital enabled by social media. Putnam (2000) notes that social capital depends on social networks, relations, social links, and the values of mutuality and dependability.

Correspondingly, Ellison et al. (2007) uncovered that extensive use of social media platforms, for instance, Facebook, projected bonding social capital, which is generally linked to robust connections like close friends. Bonding and bridging social capital on social media is evident through the interactions and sharing of information that drives food remittances. For example, the bonding between migrants and their family members on social media at an individual level or in groups. And the bridging social capital in church groups and groups consisting of fellow Zimbabweans. Social media platforms can afford migrants and their networks the opportunities to quickly, easily and cheaply obtain comprehensive facts or material valuable to the food remitting process.

Therefore, the impact and influence of social media on the motivations to remit food to Zimbabwe for migrants in Cape Town, South Africa, findings can be interpreted from

[6] The creation of the Malaicha mobile application was motivated by Zimbabweans based in South Africa, who for many years have been utilizing transport operators to transmit food to their families back in Zimbabwe. The term ‘malaicha’ is Ndebele jargon for this traditional channel of remitting goods across the border (Timeslive, 2020).

numerous perspectives. First, interactions on social media, particularly on WhatsApp, with relatives or family members drive participants to transfer food back home. The communication that inspired the food transfer mainly included the socio-economic situation in Zimbabwe, food shortages, food prices and food insecurity. Second, family members of respondents requested help and assistance with food items via social media. Third, news updates shared on social media platforms like Facebook and Twitter about hunger and food insecurity initiated communication with family or household members and established that they required food transfers.

Fourth, various social media groups on WhatsApp and Facebook consisting of family or household members, friends, church associates and other Zimbabweans proved to be valuable in motivating food transmission by providing information related to the prices of food items, the circumstances in Zimbabwe and the channels to remit goods. Lastly, the advertisement and marketing on social media by remitting companies where discounts and specials are disseminated influenced the remitting of food. Therefore, social media play a significant role in the motivation to transfer food items back to the place of origin by affording valuable information and providing a reliable communication channel.

8.3.2 Channels of food remitting and social media

8.3.2.1 Food remitting channels

According to Crush and Caesar (2016), transferring in-kind remittances, particularly food items, is mainly transmitted through informal channels. Chipo noted that she remits food using three different channels, either through transport carriers, taking it to Zimbabwe on her own or when a family member travelling to Zimbabwe carries goods on her behalf. Additionally, Chipo described how the carriers she uses to transmit food to Zimbabwe function. She revealed that one could order food items online, for example, at Game shops or any other retail, then the couriers go to the retail and collect goods then transport the goods to Zimbabwe. In other circumstances, Chipo noted that she has relatives in Johannesburg who shop or purchase food items and keep the foodstuff at their place until the carriers go and collect, then transmit it to Zimbabwe. Chipo then transfers money to her relatives in Johannesburg to compensate for purchasing the food items. Moreover, Chipo indicated that she sometimes carries food items to Zimbabwe when travelling home via air transport. The above demonstrates that Zimbabwean migrants use various channels to transfer food items back home, depending on the availability and accessibility of the channels.

Diana revealed that when sending food remittances to the place of origin, she uses bus companies or the Malayitsha operators transporting goods to Zimbabwe. In times of crisis, migrants tend to find alternative ways to send food items and other goods to Zimbabwe. As indicated by Diana, she has used:

> "…an individual who works for a funeral company because the borders were closed. The regular forms of transportation I used could not work because the borders were closed(however) because funeral companies were allowed to repatriate bodies across borders, I had to resort to using these companies to send food to Zimbabwe."

Diana has considered using the Malaicha mobile application on her phone but decided to keep using the transport operators because the prices on the Malaicha application were too high. Mary also noted that she usually uses buses to transfer food remittances back home. Darren uses the Malayitsha couriers when sending food items to Zimbabwe; he indicated that he prefers the system because they go directly and deliver to his family's house. Likewise, Nzima (2017) asserts that most migrants choose to utilize the Malayitsha services because they transport remittances to the doorstep. Therefore, the 'Malayitsha' system is attractive to migrants because it is inexpensive and flexible in the collection, transportation and delivery of goods.

In this study, Tatenda indicated that when he sends food items back to his place of origin, he is more comfortable using transport operators, especially bus drivers. According to Tatenda, they do not ask for legal immigration papers before rendering their services. To put this into context, undocumented migrants do not prefer using formal channels that require a residence permit or legal permission to be in South Africa for a person to send remittances because this may result in an arrest, deportation or refusal to give the services. Similarly, Nzima (2017) argues that the carriers in the 'Malayitsha' system transport undocumented migrants between Zimbabwe and South Africa because of their links to immigration representatives. The Malayitsha system operates the same way when providing services for the movement of goods. They do not require the migrants to be legal immigrants to send food back home.

In Tatenda's case, having social connections and networking with carriers is significant in the transference of food items to Zimbabwe. He noted that it is cheaper to use drivers; this can be explained by how the transport operators do not pay duty for the goods transported because they are connected to officials at the border post. This is also indicated by Nzima (2017) that

the transport operatives have relations with customs officials, law enforcement, and immigration officials that make it flexibly to cross the border. The 'Malayitsha' system of sending remittances denotes the informal cross-border transport services or carriers that transport people and remittances, both in cash and in-kind, between the Zimbabwe and South Africa routes (Nzima, 2017). This informal system plays a noteworthy part in the remitting of food items to Zimbabwe, especially considering, unlike sending cash remittances, using formal channels to transfer food is complicated and, in some cases, impossible to transfer goods, especially food items, back home.

Tonderai noted that he sends food to Zimbabwe by his relative in Johannesburg. Tonderai revealed that whenever the relative is going home, he is notified then he sends food items to the relative to be transported to his family back home. Likewise, Thandeka, a female office worker aged 32, also used a network in Johannesburg to transfer food items back home. She noted that she would coordinate with her friends and then transmit money to a person in Johannesburg, who would buy groceries on their behalf and transport it back to their families in Zimbabwe. Tawanda, a male and 37-year-old participant, sends food to Zimbabwe through a friend from the same village whenever he travels home. The cases of Tonderai, Thandeka and Tawanda point to the significance of social ties and networks in the food remitting process, where migrants who transfer food to Zimbabwe have links or get help from family members, relatives and friends in the channelling of goods to Zimbabwe. This research reveals that informal channels of remitting food items are popular. Other studies have shown that Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa favour informal channels like drivers of buses, cars and taxis, relatives, friends and other networks or forms of carriers when sending goods back home (Chikanda & Tawodzera, 2017; Nyamunda, 2014; Nzima, 2017; Tevera and Chikanda, 2009; Thebe & Mutyatyu, 2017).

8.3.2.2 Mobile food remitting channels

The channelling of goods or food items is widely done informally, resulting in challenges in tracing, monitoring or observing the nature and quantity of the remitted goods. Crush and Caesar (2016) posit that the remittances in-kind, particularly food items, across international borders and internally within borders have gained limited consideration mainly because the transmissions happen outside market passages. Therefore, they argue that this has caused a scarcity of robust data on food transfers' quantity, importance, and influence (Crush and Caesar, 2016). But, with the expansion of technology and the increase of mobile use, things have changed; goods and food can now be transmitted using formal, semi-formal, digital

transactions or mobile technologies. For that reason, mobile goods remitting, particularly food remittances transferred through formal, digital transactions and mobile platforms, can now be monitored, researched, quantified and explained for development purposes.

Noteworthy in the literature on remittances is the emergence of mobile remitting technologies where remittances can be transmitted simply, instantly and, in some cases, inexpensively. Siegel and Fransen (2013) argue that mobile remittances have a significant development capability as they can afford speedy, straightforward and low-priced money transmissions. Several studies have also illustrated the advances in online or electronic transactions, the importance of mobile technology and remittance transfers for the welfare of many communities in the developing world or global south (Apiors and Suzuki, 2018; Merritt, 2011; Munyegera and Matsumoto, 2016; Nyanhete, 2017; Richard, 2011; Sivapragasam, Agüero and de Silva, 2011). Studies have also shown that mobile devices, mobile money or mobile transmissions have made the sending of remittances accessible, more frequently, reliable or inexpensive and facilitate the financial inclusion of migrants (Elmi and Ngwenyama, 2020; Emara and Zhang, 2021; Gniniguè and Ali, 2021; Guermond, 2022; Hossain and Samad, 2021; Kitimbo 2021; Kunz and Maisenbacher, 2021; Lee et al., 2021). However, the studies on digital/mobile remittances are mainly limited to cash remittances, but they show mobile technology's benefits and developmental impact on the remitting process. The experiences in this research indicate the emergence and importance of mobile food remittances.

Brighton noted that he uses the Mukuru app or the Malaicha app on his phone to transfer food back home mainly because "hazvinetsi kushandisa, hazvidhuri and vanokurumidza" meaning easy to use, cheap and fast. Furthermore, Crush and Si (2020) assert that the Covid19 pandemic, international mobility and internal mobility limitations have adversely impacted the informal cross-border market in food products. Similarly, the mobility restrictions, lockdowns and border closures during the COVID-19 pandemic can interrupt informal remittance channels, pushing migrants to utilise formal channels such as mobile money and the banking systems (Crush, Thomaz and Ramachandran, 2021). Accordingly, because of Covid19 limits and constraints, Brighton could not transmit food items using transport carriers; a friend then advised him to try the mobile channels. In addition, Brighton stated that "ndinovadira kuti ukatenga zvakawanda, vanoita free delivery", meaning he likes using mobile channels because of free delivery when one purchases a large number of food items. Alex, a male teacher aged 42 years old, said, "I was using buses to send my family some groceries. But because the

pandemic caused the border to close, I decided to use the Malaicha and Mukuru services on my phone".

The above illustrates that mobile applications like Mukuru and Malaicha are preferred in some circumstances because they are inexpensive and speedy, and digital transactions are swift to complete. Mobile remitting applications are also convenient because they are accessible easily on mobile devices and online or through electronic/digital transactions. Mobile channels also afford collections at various shops or supermarkets. Remarkably, mobile channels to transfer food are vital, especially when transport channels are interrupted in times of crisis, like the Covid19 pandemic that has limited transportation of goods. Noteworthy is that the digital/mobile remitting applications are monitored, tracked and regulated, and the chances of missing, stolen, or broken goods are limited. Therefore, digital/mobile food remittance channels have transformed and revolutionized the transmission of food remittances.

8.3.2.3 Channels of food remitting and social media

Social media operations are communally generated and influenced by connections in that the behaviours of social media users impact one another (Kim and Ellison, 2021). Social ties and networks are at the centre of the channels of food remitting, showing the significant role that social capital plays in the food remitting phenomenon. In a study by Tevera and Chikanda (2009), the quantity, frequency and channels of remitting are not made individually by the migrants but rather as a collective, including household and family members. Technology has advanced. Digital platforms, mobile devices and applications can now provide cheap, easy-to-use and efficient platforms like social media that allow migrants and their families or households to interact more quickly.

Similarly, this study identified social media sites as useful in transmitting food remittances. For example, Chipo revealed that social media provides awareness of the situation in Zimbabwe, communicating with individuals who require the food and interacting with different parties or carriers which can carry the food to Zimbabwe. Notably, she indicated that social media is helpful, especially WhatsApp, which is cheap and affordable when communicating with the carriers or intermediaries, especially issues related to economic or political issues that affect the food remitting process, like tariffs charged at the border.

Social media provide a comparatively inexpensive, easily reachable, and media-rich interaction source for migrants (Dekker et al., 2018). Similarly, Tonderai noted that when planning to

transmit food remittances to Zimbabwe through a relative, he uses WhatsApp because it is the cheapest, most accessible and most convenient form of communication. Correspondingly, WhatsApp is inexpensive, efficient, and consumer-friendly compared to standard messaging and phone call costs (Mefolere, 2016). Diana revealed the importance of social media when selecting the channel to transfer food items to Zimbabwe. She noted that when deciding on who to use and how to remit food back home, she does social media research on Twitter and Facebook and also considers the opinions of others on the services available.

She indicated that "when I had to decide who to use and how to send, I needed to do some social media research to find out what people are saying about the service that I'm intending on using." Also, Diana added that negative or positive information that goes viral on social media about the food remitting channels or service providers like bus companies is helpful. Mary illustrated the importance of social media platforms like WhatsApp for online and mobile remitting applications like Mukuru. Rozgonjuk et al. (2021) note that it is probable to retail and purchase merchandise on social media platforms like Facebook. Similarly, Mary explained that the Mukuru option advertises on WhatsApp and orders can also be done on WhatsApp or advertised on WhatsApp. One has to go and do the transaction on their website. The use of social media is essential in the food remitting process, in this case, WhatsApp, where users can generate and complete transactions or place food orders to transfer. Service providers and companies can use social media as a valuable resource to communicate and do business with customers. For example, Aichner and Jacob (2015) noted that companies could use Facebook to form their pages, compose content, and post videos and images. Registered consumers can turn into followers of a Facebook page and positively react to a video, image, or message, give a remark, or distribute with friends (Aichner and Jacob, 2015).

Similarly, Aichner et al. (2021) first assert that companies utilise social media sites to update their clients, collect data, obtain feedback, afford post-sales service, and market their services or merchandise. Second, they noted that social media could be an efficient apparatus to become closer to the clients. Third, they argue that consumers are primarily fascinated by interacting simply and rapidly with the corporation. Furthermore, using social media awareness and updating consumers is vital for companies to stay competitive (Aichner et al., 2021). Lastly, from a corporate viewpoint, the corporation wishes to be sure that consumers obtain the correct information in a well-timed way, connecting the consumer closer to the brand and, at the same time, managing the movement of information (Aichner et al., 2021). The above illustrates how

social media has become necessary for interaction, service delivery and reviews in the relationship between companies and their customers.

Accordingly, Brighton indicated that it is possible to use WhatsApp or Facebook messenger to contact mobile remittance companies and get support with registration or making transactions. Social media proved to be a helpful resource in times of crisis. For instance, Thandeka revealed that social media is informative and crucial; for example, when she wanted to transmit items to Zimbabwe during the Covid19 pandemic restrictions, she relied on social media to get information on the circumstances at the border. In Diana's case, social media, especially Facebook, was valuable in finding ways to transfer food back home during border closures and restrictions caused by the covid19 pandemic. Diana's account stated that she saw the information:

> "…on the Zimbabweans in Cape Town, Facebook page, and when we were under level five lockdown. Many people were also asking on social media how people who have got urgent requests from Zimbabwe are sending through the things… somebody wrote that they were also working with a funeral company that repatriates bodies of deceased Zimbabweans. And that's how they were getting their goods through…"

Social networking and trust were also crucial in the use of the funeral company to transmit food. Diana consulted with her sister and received a recommendation of a reliable individual to assist, and she commented that:

> "And so I spoke to my sister who's in Zimbabwe. If she was aware of anybody that's in the funeral services sector. And it so happened that she had a colleague, I think they've gone to school together, who was working for a funeral company in South Africa, so she spoke to the guy, and the guy agreed to support and assistance. So he became the regular person we used, particularly when we were under level five lockdown."

Thandeka and Diana's experiences illustrate that social networking on social media help and contribute to the food transfer process from South Africa to Zimbabwe. In this study, social media in the context of the above experiences is vital in gathering or sharing information related to the channels of food transmission. Correspondingly, Khan, Swar and Lee (2014) postulate that content and information distribution are vital for social networking. Social media are essential in obtaining crucial information on several circumstances (Khan, Swar and Lee, 2014). Migrants, in their food remitting practices, such as the channels they use, utilize social media features, which affords them the simplicity of disseminating and sharing information.

The above is consistent with the literature on social media that reveals social media uses, functions and advantages. For example, Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) state that social media enable the formation and exchange of information. Social media platforms assist in initiating and expanding social networks by linking users in groups or individually (Obar and Wildman, 2015). Notably, the communication between family members, friends and middlemen or carriers helped comprehend the importance of social capital in the channels used to transmit food. Correspondingly, Nzima (2017) posit that the cost of transferring remittances is founded on social capital, contacts, connections and social networks. In this research, the bonding (with solid links such as family members) and bridging (with weak links such as fellow Zimbabweans) social capital on social media facilitates valuable communication. It affords access to the best available channels to transfer food.

Consequently, numerous outcomes were observed in discovering the role and influence of social media on food remitting channels. To begin with, social media, especially WhatsApp, proved important in the communication between food remitting migrants and carriers. For example, social media communication channels were inexpensive and essential for the interaction about border tariffs and economic or political settings in Zimbabwe. Second, social media was significant in deciding on the cheapest and most reliable channels. For instance, it was discovered that information on Twitter and Facebook, where opinions of other remitting migrants are shared, were reviewed to make an informed choice on the remitting channels to use.

Third and noteworthy, social media plays a significant role as a channel to remit food items. For example, remittance service providers like Mukuru provide users with a choice to create transactions and place orders using the WhatsApp platform. Lastly, social media facilitated the movement of helpful information on the channels to use during the crisis, like the Covid19 pandemic restrictions. For instance, information on Facebook revealed that funeral companies were informally transporting goods for migrants. In perspective, when the Beit bridge border was closed for public transport, funeral companies were allowed to continue operating and cross the border; this provided opportunities for Zimbabwean migrants to utilize them in sending in-kind remittances to Zimbabwe.

8.3.3 The nature of food remitting and social media

8.3.3.1 The nature of food remitting

Remittances are not entirely in cash; they can also be in-kind, including foodstuffs (Crush, 2016). In addition, Ramachandran and Crush (2021) note that money and in-kind transfers, including food and other goods, assist in accessing the vital necessities of Zimbabweans in the setting of non-payment of wages, enormous shrinkage of livelihood, shocking inflation and a crumbling economy. The respondents in this study indicated that they transmit food items to Zimbabwe, especially the basic food needs. The common foodstuffs included sugar, salt, rice, pasta, cooking oil, peanut butter, maize-meal, salt and tinned/canned food, especially beans. Similarly, a recent study by Apatinga, Asiedu and Obeng (2022) showed the importance of non-cash remittances and the welfare of households in Ghana. It revealed that remittances are transferred in cash and in-kind, including food items like sugar, cooking oil, maize-meal and salt. The above shows that while money transmitted back to the places of origin by migrants dominates the remittances discourses, in recent years, there has been growing evidence and importance of in-kind remittances, including food. Crush and Caesar (2016) argue that remittances consist of both cash and in-kind, including goods like foodstuffs; nevertheless, there is bias by researchers, academics and policymakers who have paid limited attention to in-kind remittances and focused more on cash remittances.

Concerning the frequency of sending food remittances to Zimbabwe, most participants indicated that they do it whenever possible. However, Brighton revealed that he sends food back home almost every month. Noteworthy, Diana noted that she had assisted friends and family in emergencies with loans to purchase food to transfer to Zimbabwe during the lockdown caused by the Covid19 pandemic. Many people lost their jobs or were unemployed; therefore, they did not have consistent access to financial resources. Similarly, Thandeka stated that she had a couple of friends who have asked for money to buy groceries to remit back to Zimbabwe. Crush and Si (2020) assert that the Covid19 pandemic suppression measures affected food security in various Southern urban locations. The challenges caused by the Covid19 pandemic include joblessness, downsizings, regulations on movement, sudden decrease in household income, closing of school feeding activities, interruption of food supply chains, and fractional or total prohibitions on street vending and informal food markets (Crush and Si, 2020). Therefore, despite challenges and limitations related to the Covid19 pandemic, the support amongst food remitting migrants was significant in accessing resources to transfer food from the destination to the origin areas.

8.3.3.2 Reverse remittances

Research (Yeboah, Boamah and Appai, 2021) has demonstrated that remittances are a component of broader mutual social connections, encompassing bidirectional transfers between migrants based in the destination areas and their families in the origin areas. This research investigated whether the transfer of food remittances is one way, from the destination to the origin areas. The study revealed a two-way movement of food items where people in origin also transmit goods to their relatives in the destination areas. The transfer of remittances from the origin to the destination areas is called reverse remittances. Alex stated that whenever his wife returns from a visit to Zimbabwe, she brings madora, matemba, mazowe and dried vegetables. Diana noted that she receives foodstuffs from Zimbabwe. She stated that the food items from Zimbabwe are essential for her mental or emotional health, especially when she is missing home or depressed. To her, the food items provide comfort. Diana mainly receives things not available in South Africa, such as cerevita, sweet potato, Mazowe juice and indigenous Zimbabwean foods like legumes and dried fruit. Concerning the channels she receives the food, Diana said:

> "So what normally happens for me is the same person I would have sent through, like the funeral company guy. When he drops off whatever I've sent through to my parents. They then give him whatever they need to send through to me. They've also used the regulated bus companies."

The above shows how the carriers play an important role, not just as a transporter of food remittances from the host locations to the origin areas but also in transporting reverse food remittances from the origin to the destination areas. Similarly, Chipo also receives food from Zimbabwe, and she said, "I do receive food items from Zimbabwe, and I also bring food items back from Zimbabwe whenever I go there." She receives items like peanut butter, peanuts, sweet potatoes and African popcorn, which they call 'maputi'. She also noted that she gets these food items based on her enjoyment and preference for specific foods. For example, she said: "…I prefer Zimbabwean peanut butter to South African peanut butter". She has received food from relatives and friends who mainly come to South Africa from Zimbabwe via air transport. Thandeka also receives foodstuffs from Zimbabwe. She revealed that when her mother visits her, she brings 'madora', fruits and other local Zimbabwean foods. Brighton received 'matemba' mazowe, dried meat and a cereal called 'cerevita' for his children from his sister, who is based in Zimbabwe; he gets the foodstuffs from his colleagues who collect them for him whenever they visit Zimbabwe.

Chipo noted that in some instances, she has brought back food items from Zimbabwe for other people. For example, she came with fermented milk and sweet potatoes for her sister-in-law. Mary explained that she does not directly receive food items from Zimbabwe. However, she has a friend who receives food items from her relatives when they visit and share them with her. The findings correspond with studies that indicate and explain the presence of reverse remittances in the remittances discussions (see Abranches, 2014; Mazzucato, 2009, Mazzucato, 2011; Nepal, Park and Lee, 2020; Ratha, Mohapatra and Silwal, 2009; Yeboah, Boamah and Appai, 2021). Therefore, as noted earlier, the findings on reverse food transmissions exhibit that food transfers are not solely one-way. They can also be bi-directional, showing the communal social connections between the migrants abroad and their household or family members in the place of origin. The relationship between the migrants and their home countries is also maintained by consuming staple foods or foods with sentimental value. Additionally, reverse transfers can support migrants in times of food insecurity, poor access to food, or food shortages.

8.3.3.3 The nature of food remitting and social media

Scholars (Crush and Caesar, 2016; Pendleton et al., 2007) have argued that remittances are money and goods transferred by migrants from the destination to the origin areas. The goods can also be food items. Thus research or discussions on remittances should not only focus on cash transfers or disregard the nature and impact of in-kind transfers. Noteworthy, Borkert, Fisher, and Yafi (2018) posit that migrants share and post information on social media and online social sites. Therefore, migrants can share valuable information concerning the channelling of remittances. The respondents in this study indicated that they transfer food items to Zimbabwe primarily to address their basic food needs. Notably, social media proved to be a significant source of information in the food remitting undertakings. For example, Diana explained the importance of social media on food remitting, specifically Facebook and WhatsApp. She revealed that on Facebook, one could get a valuable or broader range of information and the opportunity to view the opinions of thousands of Zimbabweans on the same Facebook group. Also, she indicated that WhatsApp groups provide more personalized experiences because the groups consist of acquaintances, friends, family members or associates. Diana revealed the importance of social media by noting that:

> "I got most of the information from my family, but I always check what's happening on social media because sometimes you know that when you send things home, even your

family members can inflate the prices. So that they get a little bit more than what it costs. So whenever they tell me what something costs. I would also double-check what people say via Facebook, mainly on Zimbabwean groups. So I'll do my comparison."

The possibility of Facebook in increasing the reach and richness of societies is credited to its extensive geographical flexibility and accessibility in enabling interaction, associations and business globally (Liew, Vaithilingam and Nair, 2014). Tonderai revealed that social media improves communication, especially when organizing cheaper channels to remit food, especially by using social media networks, such as coordinating efficiently and buying goods in bulk or joining resources together. Thandeka noted that she used to be in a group or network with friends where they coordinated and made monthly money contributions, then bought food in bulk and transmitted it to Zimbabwe.

Social media initiate information sharing, social networking and social capital (Louati and Hadoussa, 2021). Correspondingly, social networking platforms are likely to reform social networks, reduce communication expenses, and result in the valuable outcome of networking; therefore, social networking sites can have social capital upshots (Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe, 2007; Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe, 2011). Tonderai indicated that as a student who sometimes faces financial challenges, he has been in emergencies where he contacts friends or networks on WhatsApp and asks for financial help to buy food items to transfer to Zimbabwe. He added that social media platforms like WhatsApp are essential in emergencies because of the expectation of getting an immediate response.

The advantage of social media platforms is that they enable the delivery of messages in real-time, and the interactions, calls or messages can be done promptly. Concerning believing and trusting information related to food remittances on social media, Tonderai noted that he tries to verify by reading reviews or comments on Facebook, Twitter or Instagram or interacting with his networks on WhatsApp regarding food remitting service providers. Diana revealed that she trusts the information on social media. However, she indicated that in situations where many people give their opinions, the perspectives are likely to differ, so she does personal analysis or assessment. Therefore, social media provide helpful information for the Zimbabwean migrants concerning the transfer of food to the origin locations. However, the Zimbabwean migrants also verify and evaluate the validity or reliability of the information they view on social media.

8.3.4 Food remitting challenges and social media

8.3.4.1 Food remitting challenges

Studies (Nzima, 2017; Tevera and Chikanda, 2009) have shown that the channelling of remittances to Zimbabwe has challenges such as access to dependable channels. The experiences of Zimbabwean migrants in this study revealed that the remitting food process also has challenges. Diana indicated that the Malaicha application is expensive and that the prices are too high compared to informal couriers. Alex stated the Malaicha and Mukuru applications are beneficial. However, "asi zvinodhura kushandisa", meaning they are expensive to use. Tonderai noted that he had heard stories about how online food remitting applications like Malaicha have challenges. For instance, he revealed that:

> "quite often the food doesn't arrive on time; occasionally there are substitutes on the order list and one at times ends up getting inferior food items --- in terms of brands and nutritional content".

Brighton noted that "…sometimes the online system is down, and as a result, transactions are often incomplete." He added, "in some situations, I buy groceries online, but when my family wants to collect the goods, they are told that the items are out of stock and that they have to get a refund or wait until the goods are available". Based on Alex, Brighton, and Tonderai's narratives, mobile food remitting applications like Malaicha are quick and easy to use. However, they also have shortcomings like costly charges, limited stock after the transactions are completed, and delays or mix up online, resulting in the delivery of the wrong items.

Chipo indicated that one of her biggest challenges is getting food items to cross the border because of duty or taxes. Another challenge pointed out by Chipo is confidence and trust. She noted that it is challenging to ensure that the carriers "…will take everything across in shape and get everything that you have bought and deliver everything that you would have purchased across". However, she noted that there is trust and no concern after a few times of using the carriers. Trust and reliability are noticeable at the centre of the relations between a migrant and a transport courier in the remitting food process. The networking and services seem to depend on dependability and assurance that the remitted foodstuffs would be delivered on time without any breakages or missing items.

Thandeka, who used to coordinate with friends and transfer goods from Cape Town to Johannesburg and then to Zimbabwe, noted that distance was a problem and coordinating with friends was a challenge because of differences in preferred food items as well as missing items. In Diana's situation, her challenges include delays in transporting the food items by the bus

companies, and foodstuffs getting lost, especially when using the malayitsha carriers. For example, someone who worked for a funeral company delivered the goods to the wrong person. She noted her disappointment by saying:

> "… because there is no warranty on the food items, there are no refunds if the food is lost on the way".

Similar observations were noted in a study by Nzima (2017) and research by Tevera and Chikanda (2009). The studies revealed that sending in-kind remittances to Zimbabwe from South Africa through the Malayitsha transport operators had unexpected incidences; for example, the goods were misplaced, damaged, delayed or used for other purposes. Diana added that another challenge she faces is that the informal or unregulated channels can result in goods being impounded by the immigration authorities like the Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (ZIMRA) officials because of not paying duty or import taxes. She also said sometimes, the informal couriers try to bribe the authorities and get arrested. In some instances, Diana said, the informal couriers bribe the immigration officials. However, she noted that the challenge comes when the informal couriers demand the money they paid for bribes from the customers or owners of the goods. She also pointed out that it causes conflict because there is no way to confirm the exact amount paid since there is no receipt. The above shows that because the informal remitting channels lack transparency and are not monitored or regulated, it may result in difficulties in reliability, tracing or delivery of all the food items.

Tonderai also said that he is sceptical of registering for the food remitting online applications because they request an identification document, personal information and a photograph. He does not trust the process. He also noted that the process is cumbersome because it takes more than 24 hours to be registered and approved, and sometimes photographs are denied because of size or poor lighting. Tatenda and Tawanda revealed that they face the challenge of not having the correct immigration documents. As undocumented migrants, they feel that it is challenging to register and use the remitting applications. They are afraid that service providers might see that they are in South Africa unlawfully. Similarly, Nzima (2017) indicated that many Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa are undocumented migrants; therefore, it is challenging for undocumented migrants to utilize formal remitting channels.

To put this into perspective, for migrants to use formal remittance channels, they need to provide identification documents, valid visas and, in some cases, sources of income. The documentation requirements can deter undocumented migrants and make them prefer using

informal channels like transport carriers that are not strict on documentation. Zimbabwean undocumented migrants are revealed to be disregarded and at-risk with limited transnational capabilities that consequently restrict remittance flows and thus adversely affect relatives in the place of origin who rely on the transfers from migrants in South Africa and abroad (Bloch, 2010).

8.3.4.2 Food remitting challenges and social media

Scholars (Chan et al., 2020; Westerman, Spence and Van Der Heide, 2014) have indicated that social media provides quick and efficient ways to interact and share valuable information. Social media enable users to post and share reviews on products or services (Jain, Hall-Phillips and Djamasbi, 2018). Also, social media are essential to migrant networks as they afford interaction passages that can be reached nearly and straightforwardly wherever in the globe, facilitate social relations between persons, and make available information on destination areas (Pourmehdi and Shahrani, 2021). Migrants can use Facebook to authenticate the trustworthiness and reliability of information (Ennaji and Bignami, 2019). Therefore, social media can provide helpful information to help address challenges encountered by migrants when channelling food items. This research reveals that for Zimbabwean migrants, social media is valuable in sorting out some of the challenges they face while remitting food. Tonderai indicated that social media is vital for communication. For example, he noted that when there is an emergency like financial challenges, he uses social media to contact his friends to borrow money, saying, "… social media in that way, it helps a lot" as a communicating tool.

Tonderai also noted that social media is mainly important when it comes to the challenge of communicating and finding out if someone is going home for him to give the person the food items to deliver to his family. Chipo echoed the same sentiments of social media being essential for communication. Chipo indicated that social media is key in communicating with the people who require food remittances and communicating with the couriers primarily via WhatsApp. She also noted that social media is essential in revealing the situation in Zimbabwe, which is related to sending food items. Chipo also explained the importance of social media in the context of the challenges related to the current Covid pandemic. She said:

> "I think, you know, the biggest challenge with food remitting on the basis of COVID-19 is human-to-human contact, right? So, social media assists in communicating specific information because now you know we've entered into a period when

businesses can operate following the restrictions of COVID-19 social distancing and masking guidelines."

Additionally, the benefit of social media is that the interaction is done in online communities and can be conducted by people in different spaces. Furthermore, social media affords communication-based not only face-to-face interaction but also online social networking sites. As revealed by Chipo:

> "I think social media allows you or allows for people to be able to remit and send their items without having to excuse me get into contact with one another. By this, what I mean is, be it via courier or even via a family member, you don't necessarily have to get in physical contact with anyone to get the food you would like to courier across."

Striking is the importance of social media platforms as communication tools and facilitating buying food online. Chipo illustrated the significant role that social media sites play in providing valuable information, interaction and purchasing goods. She said:

> "Social media enables individuals to communicate via WhatsApp even, you know, engaging and making purchases. You can find links on social media to shops, etc., that you might want to buy from. And also, you can share all of this information via WhatsApp and social media."

Chipo's case illustrates that social media is beneficial when face-to-face or direct contact is limited, like during the Covid19 pandemic, by affording users tools to interact and connect virtually. During the COVID-19 plague, social media can afford speedy and efficient distribution or sharing platforms for important information (Chan et al., 2020). In this research, it is evident that social media assist in the food remitting planning and undertakings and communication between migrants and their family members or migrants and the couriers despite being in different locations. In addition, social media platforms are progressively utilized as sources of information, like content connected to risks and crises (Westerman, Spence and Van Der Heide, 2014).

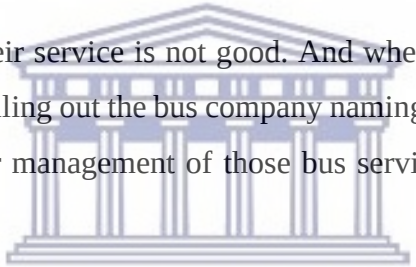
For Zimbabwean migrants, social media is an essential source of information in solving their challenges. The narrative by Diana noted that social media play a vital role in addressing her

challenges with food remitting. For instance, she uses social media to verify information, especially from posts on Facebook and Twitter by people facing the same problems. She said:

> "Sometimes you find a post that somebody would have posted; we encounter a similar problem by the same person or with the same person. And sometimes you'll find that the person is in the habit of lying to people to say, I have used, I've been, I've been arrested, and I need you to pay an extra 500. You get people that will also tell you maybe five or ten people will come up and say no, this guy is a crook; he's not telling the truth. So it also kind of helps you to know."

According to Diana, reviews on social media help her use trustworthy couriers or reliable bus companies. She thinks social media platforms like Twitter and Facebook play a huge role in providing helpful information. Diana indicated that the feedback on social media sites like Facebook and Twitter helps to address the challenges encountered when food remitting and attainment of important information on service delivery of couriers and bus companies. She said:

> "Because sometimes their service is not good. And when there is an outcry on social media and people are calling out the bus company naming and shaming them. It always invites the top or senior management of those bus services to come up and say, you know we apologize."



Therefore, social media is vital in providing feedback, opinions and reviews of the challenges related to the service delivery of food remitting channels. Accordingly, social media provide awareness of the problems encountered when transferring food back home, as indicated by Diana:

> "We were unaware that these are the things happening on the ground, who work to resolve the challenges you are experiencing. So it does help because then there is the recourse that you can also trust is going to work to help you address the challenge."

Diana's experiences provide helpful comprehension of the importance of online or social media reviews or opinions of other food remitting migrants. In a study by Jain, Hall-Phillips and Djamasbi (2018), customers rely on online product reviews to reach buying choices; they also determined that social media reviews are beneficial in attaining purchasing resolutions considering the informative appraisals made by other consumers. In addition, consumers on social media have to participate actively or share content to get feedback or instigate

interactions (Khan, Wohn and Ellison, 2014). This study echoes the same sentiments through the importance of social media reviews or perspectives of other migrants, especially on issues related to the reliability or trustworthiness of food remitting channels. Diana also mentioned that when she faced challenges in transmitting groceries to Zimbabwe because of the Covid19 restrictions and closing of borders, she used social media, specifically Facebook, to gather information on how to address her obstacles. She noted that:

> "In terms of you know that that thing where you can ask a question on Facebook. What do they call it? Where you can write a question, and then people can respond to answer? I used that in the early days when I wasn't sure, especially during the lockdown on how to send because the borders were closed. On Facebook, we have asked the question, and people responded to say, well, use this person or use this company they are able to move… I was asking during the lockdown how I could send money. I mean, how I can send groceries since the borders were closed, that was my question."

Diana indicated that the responses to her questions on Facebook helped her to address her challenges. She noted that she used the funeral person to help her transfer groceries to Zimbabwe because of the information she gathered on Facebook. Thandeka had a similar experience with social media, where the information on WhatsApp and Twitter helped provide valuable information. She argued that:

> "…you could get information. For example, who's in Joburg, going back home or some of the contacts of the people I used to check stuff in Joburg. And people that I've met on social media, and I get information from them, or they give you contact details of the cheapest driver, you can't see him from Jo'burg, or they are the ones that go and collect the stuff for me or buy stuff for me. So social media has provided the human resources as well as the information."

The experiences of Diana and Thandeka demonstrate social media provides helpful information related to countering food remitting challenges. For the Zimbabwean migrants, the beneficial information from social media consists of reviews on the various remitting channels and their reliability, information on the cheapest methods to remit, and the most accessible channels during a crisis like the Covid19 pandemic. Therefore, in the context of this study, social media is significant in verifying, accessing and disseminating information that assists in tackling food remitting challenges. In addition, social media facilitates the process of making food transfer

transactions. Thus, social media played a significant role in addressing the remitting food challenges.

8.3.5 Influence of Family or household members, food remittances and social media

Studies have shown that family or household units have an influential role in the migration process, including remittance decisions (Sithole and Dinbabo, 2016; Tevera and Chikanda, 2009). The following experiences position the family or household members at the core of the remitting food process. Chipo noted that "my reasons for sending back food are mainly based on the requests that are made by my family." Migration also consists of the need by families and households to address, through the utilization of remittances, the absence or inadequate capital, risks and constraints they encounter (Taylor, 1999). Consequently, the connection between migration and remittances is part of livelihood and collaborative strategies, as explained by the new economics of labour migration (NELM) (Stark, 1980; Stark and Levhari, 1982; Stark and Bloom, 1985; Taylor, 1999). The postulation is that communities, family units, and households function to maximise earnings and reduce and spread risks (De Haas, 2010). Food remittances have a developmental perspective of addressing many families' and households' consumption and food needs, especially in times of crisis, food insecurity, and food shortages. Chipo noted that the food items she transferred to Zimbabwe are mainly requested or preferred groceries. She explained further about the information she discusses with family members by saying:

> "I guess when it comes to remittance information, the most valuable is, of course, the kind of food required. Also, quantity of the food required, specification into the guides to preferred brands if there is one and looking at the timeframe that they would like the food to be received within. And, yeah, I think those, those are the key things."

Therefore, Chipo's case shows that the dynamic social relations or bonds between migrants based on the destination and their families or households in the origin locations are essential in food remitting decision-making. These networks allow migrants and their families or household members to share beneficial information and strategize food remitting. According to Tevera and Chikanda (2009), the selection of the amount, rate and passages of sending remittances is not exclusively done by the migrants. The household and family members are also involved. Therefore, in the context of this research, the evidence illustrates that social connections and joint decision-making or planning between migrants and their family units or household members are fundamental elements in the remitting food process. In addition, although there are spatial differences in location, where the migrants are in the place of

destination and their families/household units in origin areas, the responsibilities to remit and the interactions seem to be maintained.

In situations where there is an economic crisis and when the undertakings of families and household members in the place of origin fail to make adequate earnings, the household or families can depend on migrant remittances for sustenance (Massey et al., 1993). Correspondingly, Chimhowu et al. (2005) assert that remittance transfers justify a responsibility by a migrant to the household founded on fondness and obligation to the family. Families and households' dependence on migrant remittances rely on communication, interaction, and strategizing with migrants. Tevera and Chikanda (2009) posit that families and household units frequently interact with their migrant networks by phone and generally ask for help in case of emergencies. The emergence of advanced digital/mobile technologies and social media have provided developmental tools for families and households in the place of origin to have an inexpensive and instant flow of information or interactions. Chipo indicated that WhatsApp is the leading platform she uses to communicate with her family about food remittances. She noted WhatsApp's importance by arguing that it is cheap and most affordable.

Also, the importance of WhatsApp in communicating with family members regarding food transfer was stated by Tonderai, who said that he uses the platform as a medium of communication with his family. Tonderai explained how contact with his family, especially his siblings, is vital in influencing his food remitting decisions. He noted that:

> "So, I communicate with a lot of my siblings through WhatsApp, so you know sometimes they tell you about the situation back home, and in that way you are aware that okay, maybe you need to try and make sure you can send something to make sure you know, they get something to eat".

Diana noted the same sentiments of WhatsApp being central to the influence and her communication with her family members in the context of food remittances. She mainly gets information from her family and associates. She noted the importance of information on social media. She said:

> "I mean, on almost all the groups I'm part of, I think we have several family groups with different family members. I mean, we have a group for our nuclear family, we have groups who are extended families from the mother's side from the father's side, we have church groups that I'm part of, I'm in groups with friends. And in all those groups, at some point, we discussed the escalating food prices in Zimbabwe."

In addition, Diana commented on the importance of social media groups where interaction with family members, relatives and associates is vital in the food remitting agenda. The communication included issues such as channels to transfer food items. She noted that:

> "--- as those conversations go, we talk about how we, as migrants in South Africa, can send things home. And we also get the opportunity to ask how other people are also sending home. So in all of those groups, I can't think of any group where at some point, we have not had a discussion on sending things to Zimbabwe and just sharing ideas and suggestions on which way or method is best to use ---."

The case of Diana illustrates the role and influence of family or household members in remitting food. For instance, the family and households are also part of the discussions on food prices, the need to remit food and the channels to utilize. This indicates that the food remitting process is a collective phenomenon where migrants and family or household members interact on social media issues related to food transfers. The experiences of the Zimbabwean migrants revealed that their family or household members request assistance with grocery and food items. In some cases, the family units or household members select the specific things they need. Social media as a communication tool is at the centre of the role and influence of the household or family members in the food remitting process.

Bonding social capital is established amongst people with a similar background, strong connections or close relationships (Dunwoodie et al., 2020; Page-Tan, 2021). Families epitomize a person's most intimate bonding relations (Page-Tan, 2021). Research (Dekker, Belabas and Scholten, 2015; Ihejirika and Krtalic, 2021; Merisalo and Jauhiainen, 2021) indicates social media and its capability to share information efficiently has the potential to initiate social capital in the migrant networks. Bonding social capital on social media amongst migrants and their families or households were essential to flow helpful information related to food remittances.

For the Zimbabwean migrants, social media proved valuable in enabling the bi-directional communication, interaction and decision-making on food remitting between migrants and their families or household members back home. Notable is the mention that social media is inexpensive to use. For migrants or family and household members struggling financially, it might be challenging to use other platforms like direct phone calls, which are more expensive. The above makes social media a preferred medium of communication because it is cheap and

affordable to access. Therefore, social media enhanced the interaction and information sharing capabilities amongst migrants who transmit food items to Zimbabwe and their family or household units.

8.4 Chapter conclusion

The results of this chapter substantiated the quantitative findings by uncovering a connection between social media and the food remitting process of the Zimbabwean migrants in Cape Town, South Africa. To summarise this section: to begin with, social media played a significant role in the motivation of food remitting. In addition, social media was influential in assisting and impacting the remitting of food channels. Furthermore, social media positively impacted the nature of food remitting. Moreover, social media was essential in addressing the challenges experienced in transmitting food items back to the place of origin. Lastly, the family or household members showed to be vital in the food remitting process in the setting of social media utilization. Social networking on social media, especially migrant networks, was essential to communicate crucial information associated with the transmission of food remittances. In the above setting, social media was also a significant social capital enabler because it assisted in bonding and bridging ties in the food-transmitting process. The next chapter is attentive to the conclusion, summary of the results and research recommendations.

9. CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

Globally, the discourse on international remittances has grown and expanded in the last two decades. A wide range of research and studies on remittances have been undertaken, especially in the global south. The literature demonstrated how remittances have contributed to the livelihoods of many households and families. A great deal of literature has also focused on the importance of remittances to countries facing economic, social and political crises. For example, a plethora of literature shows how remittances have helped many Zimbabwean households and families in dire conditions caused by economic, social and political predicaments. An abundance of literature and discussions have also paid particular attention to the movement of remittances from Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa to Zimbabwe, which has helped struggling families and households. The literature on international remittances is still growing and expanding. However, there is a strong bias toward cash remittances.

While there is an emerging body of knowledge on in-kind remittances, especially food, there is still a research gap regarding food remittances. Noteworthy, social networks are a component of the vital aspects in the numerous stages of the migration process, including transmitting remittances. Significantly, in the last two decades, social media has developed into a valuable social networking tool for interacting and distributing information amongst migrants and their networks. Accordingly, food remitting is a multifaceted phenomenon consisting of migrant social networks at origin and destination locations. However, food sending and social media are primarily viewed as disconnected concepts. In addressing the research gap and contributing to the emerging literature on food remittances, this thesis introduced the connection between social media and food remittances using Zimbabwean migrants in Cape Town, South Africa. The conclusion is discussed in this section.

Therefore the conclusion chapter focuses on the contribution by presenting the emerging role of social media in food remitting discourse in the context of the Zimbabwean migrants in Cape Town, South Africa, who transmit food remittances. First, the thesis analysed the effects of social media on Zimbabweans' motivations for food remitting. Second, the study discovered the role of social media as a facilitator in the channels used by Zimbabweans to transfer food back home and appraised the decisions to use the specific channels. Third, it examined the effects of social media on the nature, trends and patterns of food remitting by Zimbabweans.

Fourth, the research discovered migrant Zimbabweans' challenges when sending food back home. The study also explored how social media helped address problems. Lastly, it evaluated the role of the family or household members in the food remitting process in the context of social media use.

9.2 Summary of key findings

9.2.1 Motivations of food remitting and social media

Studies (Apatinga, Asiedu and Obeng, 2022; Crush and Caesar, 2016; Crush and Caesar, 2018; Crush and Caesar, 2020) indicate the importance of in-kind remittances such as food transfers. The motivations for transferring food remittances to Zimbabwe from South Africa by Zimbabweans migrants in Cape Town were diverse. The findings in this study revealed the primary reason (43%) for food transmission were the requests from family or household members back home, followed by 33% food transfers basically because of basic goods that the receivers might require and 24% remitted foodstuffs because of the food shortages or insecurity in Zimbabwe. Additionally, the experiences of the Zimbabwean migrants noted that the motivations to transfer food items to Zimbabwe were family needs, socio-economic crisis, food shortages, food insecurity and high food prices in Zimbabwe. These results correspond with evidence in other studies that uncover the nature of remittances to Zimbabwe from Zimbabwean international migrants. The studies reveal the connection between migration or remittances and the setting of socio-economic and political crisis as well as food shortages and food insecurity (see Crush, Chikanda, and Tawodzera, 2015; Crush and Tawodzera, 2017; Crush and Tevera, 2010; Sithole and Dinbabo, 2016; Tevera and Chikanda 2009; Tevera and Zinyama, 2002).

Noteworthy in this research is the significant role of social media as a facilitator of communication and interaction by migrants and their networks that influenced the motivation to remit. This was illustrated by 66% of the respondents who noted that they were inspired to transmit remittances back home because of the communications or information sharing on social media with family/household members. Furthermore, 54% revealed that they have household or family members they are connected to and communicate with that ask them on social media to transfer foodstuffs. Moreover, 44% indicated that they transfer items back to their place of origin because of the information they see on social media. In addition, 40% of

the participants specified that the decision to remit food was influenced to some extent by their interaction with friends and the information they post or share on social media.

WhatsApp (Jailobaev et al., 2021) and Facebook (Rozgonjuk et al., 2021) have functions such as sharing messages, videos, documents, voice recordings, pictures, real-time locations, and making calls. These functions can assist in the channelling of food remittances through the sharing of valuable information. Equally important, the experiences of the Zimbabwean migrants uncovered that the communication on social media, specifically on WhatsApp and Facebook, with family/household members or relatives, friends, church connections and fellow Zimbabweans motivated respondents to transmit food to Zimbabwe. These interactions on social media that inspired the transmission of food consisted of socio-economic circumstances, food prices, food insecurity, food shortages in Zimbabwe, food assistance requests and channels to remit the food.

News updates shared on social media platforms like Facebook and Twitter on the dire situations in Zimbabwe were also the driver of food transfers. Correspondingly, Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) posit that social media platforms are wholly related to information or content distribution and communication. Finally, food remitting companies' advertisement and marketing on social media, where price cuts and specials were distributed, motivated the transmission of food to Zimbabwe. From the interpretations above, it can be established that social media play an essential role in the motivation to transmit foodstuffs back home by offering platforms where helpful information related to food remittances is communicated and distributed.

9.2.2 Channels of food remitting and social media

This study revealed that Zimbabwe migrants in Cape Town, South Africa, utilize various channels when transferring food items back home. Mobile food remitting channels such as Mukuru or Malaicha were mainly used (48%), followed by 33% transport carriers such as buses/trucks/taxis etc.; 11% friends, relatives or associates and 8% personally when they travel back to the place of origin. Similarly, the experiences of the Zimbabwean migrants also illustrated that the channels to remit food included mobile methods, transport carriers, friends, relatives or associates and personally. The above is echoed in previous research that uncovered that remittances to Zimbabwe are transferred using formal and/or informal channels (Chikanda & Tawodzera, 2017; Nyamunda, 2014; Nzima, 2017; Tevera and Chikanda, 2009; Thebe &

Mutyatyu, 2017). Striking was the use of digital/mobile channels to transmit food to Zimbabwe. Although limited to cash remittances, emerging literature has pointed to the utilization of mobile remittances channels that are perceived to be cheap, fast, and user-friendly (Apiors and Suzuki, 2018; Merritt, 2011; Munyegera and Matsumoto, 2016; Nyanhete, 2017; Richard, 2011; Siegel and Fransen, 2013; Sivapragasam, Agüero and de Silva, 2011). In the context of this study, digital/mobile channels proved helpful, especially in times of crisis, like the Covid19 pandemic and restrictions that limited the use of informal channels.

The significance of social media in empowering migrants with tools to better interact on issues related to food remitting channels is remarkable. Accordingly, 74% of the participants indicated that the channels they use the most to transmit food back home are based on social media communication through messages and calls. Additionally, 58% of the respondents noted that the channels they use the most to transfer food back home are also based on social media posts and news. Moreover, social media interactions and information helped find the cheapest channel to remit food to Zimbabwe 29%; accessible channels to transfer food to Zimbabwe 27%; quickest channels to transmit food to Zimbabwe 25% and reliable channels to transfer food to Zimbabwe 19%. The experiences of the Zimbabwean migrants in the context of food remitting channels revealed that social media, particularly WhatsApp, showed to be cheap to use and useful in the communication between food remitting migrants and carriers.

Additionally, social media was influential in selecting inexpensive and dependable channels. For example, the content and views on social media platforms such as Twitter and Facebook expressed by other food remitting migrants were shared and assessed to make a knowledgeable selection on the remitting channels to utilize. Furthermore, social media was influential in the use of digital/mobile food remitting channels. For instance, mobile remittance companies such as Mukuru allow customers to generate digital transactions and make orders using the social media platforms such as WhatsApp. Correspondingly, Rozgonjuk et al. (2021) point out that social media sites such as Facebook allow users to purchase and retail products.

Lastly, social media proved to be a great source of helpful information on the channels to utilize in the Covid19 pandemic constraints. For example, when transport movements in South Africa were restricted because of the covid19 pandemic restrictions, Facebook information helped respondents access alternative channels like funeral companies to transmit goods, including food items, to Zimbabwe. Therefore, social media is a significant enabler in deciding the food

remittance channels through the rich content it provides and affording communication tools that migrants use in interacting about the suitable channels to use.

9.2.3 The nature, trends and patterns of food remitting and social media

In the context of the food transferring frequency: the majority, 59%, transmitted food items to Zimbabwe whenever possible, followed by 14% every month, 4% every three months, 9% twice a year and 14% once a year. The approximations noted by the participants on the amount spend on buying food each time they remitted food to Zimbabwe were: 0 – R1000 (47%); R1001 – R2000 (20%); R2001 – R3000 (15%); R3001 – R4000 (9%) and R4001 + (9%). A correlation between the amount spent on buying food each time they remitted food and the average monthly income was noteworthy in the research. For instance, all those who had a monthly income of R0 – R4000 transferred foodstuffs valued at R1000 or less, majority of those who transmitted food items worth R3001 – R4000+ had a monthly income of R15001 or more. Notable were reverse food remittances (33%) specified that they receive food items from Zimbabwe, mainly because they like them and they are staple/traditional/popular foods in Zimbabwe.

Social media enrich migrant networks (Akakpo and Bokpin, 2021; Dekker et al., 2018). Social media was a significant component of the nature of the Zimbabwean migrants' food remitting process. The social media platforms utilized the most by the respondents are WhatsApp 69%, followed by Facebook 23%, Twitter 5%, and Instagram 3%. Concerning the social media platforms, the participants primarily utilized to interact with matters linked to food remittances were What's App 78% and Facebook 22%. Social media interaction or information distribution was helpful in the food remitting process. For instance, 49% of the respondents noted that social media helped determine the type of food to transfer to Zimbabwe, 34% channels to transfer food to Zimbabwe, and 17% on the period/time to transfer food items to Zimbabwe. Social media sites can provide communal communication that may be important for distributing helpful information. For example, Jailobaev et al. (2021) indicate that WhatsApp groups enhance interaction between people in diverse locations and mutual interests.

In the context of social networking and social media groups, 69% of the respondents indicated that they are social media groups/groups that are helpful to them in the food remitting process. In this study, amongst the 69 participants in social media group/groups that helped them in the food remitting process, the groups were on WhatsApp 50 (72.46%) and Facebook 19 (27.54%).

The primary participants amongst those in the groups were family or household members (53.62%), friends (24.64%) and fellow Zimbabweans (21.74%). Among those in social media groups linked to food remitting were the following. 53.62% noted that the condition to join the family or household members' groups on social media was that one had to be a family or household member. 24.64% noted that to be part of a social media group of friends, one had to be a friend. And 21.74% revealed that to join the social media group with fellow Zimbabweans, one had to be a Zimbabwean.

Among those in social media groups, the social media groups were helpful on how to transfer food to Zimbabwe as indicated by 46.38%; types of food to transmit to Zimbabwe 37.68% and 15.94% on when to remit the food items to Zimbabwe. The experiences of the Zimbabwean migrants in various social media groups like family groups, friends' groups, church groups and fellow Zimbabwean groups were helpful in the motivations to remit, channels of remitting and types of food to remit. The above is consistent with the argument by Boyd and Ellison (2007), who posit that social networking platforms strengthen the sustenance of established social networks. In addition, they also aid strangers to link because of common interests and actions.

The research uncovered that 49% have been in a situation where they unpredictably encountered an emergency, like a lack of money or resources to buy foodstuffs and transfer food items back home. Then used social media to communicate and successfully get assistance. This study established that 60% have been in a situation where they assisted someone they know who had unpredictably faced an emergency, like a lack of money or resources to buy food and transmit food items back home. The interaction was done through the use of social media. 63% noted that they had coordinated jointly with people on social media on any part of the food remitting process. Additionally, 70% indicated that they believe and trust the information connected to food transfers they get on social media. The sentiments in the experiences of the Zimbabwean migrants supported these findings. Coordination and support on social media amongst migrants concerning food remittances and the trust or belief of social media content in the context of food remittances were noticeable.

Striking in this study was the evidence and importance of social capital and social networking in the food remitting process. Social networking platforms can restructure social networks, lessen the expenses of interactions, and result in the valuable outcome of networking; therefore, social networking sites can have social capital effects (Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe, 2007; Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe, 2011). The social capital and social networking on social media,

both one on one and in social media groups, were helpful in the motivation to transfer food, channels to remit food and the nature of food remittances. In the above context, bonding social capital, which consists of people with solid or close relations, was demonstrated by individual and group associations or networking on social media between the participants and family/household members and friends. Furthermore, bridging social capital, which comprises weak associations, was revealed by the communal or group connecting or networking on social media between the respondents and fellow Zimbabweans.

9.2.4 Food remitting challenges and social media

The findings in the research uncovered the challenges that Zimbabwean migrants encounter in transmitting food items from South Africa to Zimbabwe. These included: delivery delays (22%), expensive to remit food (21%), destroyed/broken foodstuffs (11%), and missing/lost/stolen (11%) and 35% had no challenges. The experiences of Zimbabwean migrants discovered similar challenges such as delivery delays, costly to remit food, destroyed/broken foodstuffs, missing/lost/stolen food items, impoundment of goods, and high duty or expensive import taxes. Other studies indicate comparable situations (Nzima, 2017; Tevera and Chikanda, 2009), which specify that sending remittances to Zimbabwe has challenges like high-priced charges, missing, misplaced, delayed, stolen, spoiled or broken goods. In addition, registration to use mobile remitting channels was also a challenge. For example, registration takes time and providing an identification document, personal information, and a photograph may make migrants uncomfortable.

Notably, this study uncovered the significance of social media in addressing the challenges faced by Zimbabwean migrants in the food remitting process. First, in the context of the Covid19 pandemic and challenges, social media was valuable in social distancing and limited face-to-face interactions where it was possible to use social media to do online transactions and communications. Second, concerning reliability challenges in channelling food to Zimbabwe using transport carriers, social media, specifically Facebook and Twitter, helped review and verify information, particularly from posts made by other Zimbabwean food remitting migrants facing similar challenges. Third, in an emergency like a financial problem involving food remittances, social media proved valuable as a rapid and cheap option for contacting various associates to get assistance. Fourth, under challenging times social media helped find the most accessible, reliable and inexpensive channels to transfer food to Zimbabwe through interactions

and information distribution. Therefore, it is noticeable that social media was a valuable resource in attending to the challenges related to food remitted noted above.

9.2.5 Influence of Family or household members, food remittances and social media

Family or household members play a significant and collective role in migration decisions and outcomes, such as sending remittances by Zimbabwean migrants (Sithole and Dinbabo, 2016). This study revealed that family or household members are influential in the drivers of food remittances, channels to transmit the food and the nature of transferring food items to Zimbabwe. For example, the primary motivations to transfer food were requests from family or household members in Zimbabwe 43%, followed by 33% simply because of basic goods that the receivers might need and 24% remit foodstuffs because of food shortages or insecurity in Zimbabwe. Along similar lines, Sithole and Dinbabo (2016) uncovered that food insecurity or food shortages in Zimbabwe and the need or obligation to meet the food needs of household or family members back to the place of origin drive the transference of remittances. The experiences of the Zimbabwean migrants also discovered that family or household members play an important role in seeking assistance from migrant relatives to transfer food remittances, especially in times of crisis.

Social media has the prospects to promote social capital in migrant networks (Ihejirika and Krtalic, 2021; Merisalo and Jauhiainen, 2021). It was noteworthy that there was a connection between social media use, bonding social capital, content sharing, and interaction between migrants and their families or household members. The relationship between social media and the significant role of family or household members in the food remitting process was startling. Accordingly, 66% of the respondents indicated that they were inspired to transmit food remittances back to their place of origin because of the communication or information sharing on social media by family/household members in Zimbabwe. Furthermore, in the research, 54% noted that they have household or family members they are linked to and communicate with that ask them on social media to transfer food items.

Similarly, the experiences of the Zimbabwean migrants uncovered that the interactions and content sharing on social media with/by family or household members were significant on matters related to food remittances. For instance, social media communication or information sharing with/by family or household members included food shortages, food insecurity, food prices, food remitting channels and conditions in Zimbabwe. Consequently, social media was a noteworthy facilitator, enabler or initiator of the communication or information broadcasting

amongst household or family members and their migrant relatives on issues connected to food remittances.

9.3 Thesis contribution to knowledge

The thesis focused on the evolving role of social media in food remitting discourse, using evidence from Zimbabwean Migrants in Cape Town, South Africa. This study made numerous contributions. First, this thesis centred on food remittances, an under-researched area of study in the literature. Studies indicate that the rich body of knowledge on international remittances mainly focuses on cash remittances, and goods such as food have attained limited attention (Crush and Caesar, 2016; Crush and Caesar, 2018; Crush and Caesar, 2020). Non-cash transmissions play a significant role in bettering the well-being of households (Apatinga, Asiedu and Obeng, 2022). Therefore, this study provided systematic and methodological research on food remittances. The study uncovered the motivations, nature, characteristics and channels used to transfer food remittances. Thus the research expanded the conception and grasp of the detailed facets of how food remittances are channelled, especially in the global south. Second and possibly of great significance, the contribution made by this thesis was to research the largely unexplored connection between social media and food remittances. This thesis illustrated the complex and indirect link between social media and food remittances. Social media transform migrant networks (Dekker and Engbersen, 2014).

In addition, in Sub-Saharan Africa, there is an understudy of research on the functions of information communication technology (ICT) and social media in the links between international migration, remittances and associations (Akanle, Fayehun, and Oyelakin, 2021). Accordingly, the research illustrated how social media facilitated communication and social networking between migrants and their connections, inspiring the motivation to transfer food items. The interaction (calls or messaging), posts, reviews or content on social media provided a wealth of information such as channels to transmit the food, circumstances on food shortages, food insecurity, food prices and socio-economic conditions in the origin location.

The resourcefulness of rich content or communication on social media concerning the food remitting process was enabled by social networking and forms of social capital like bonding and bridging with family/household members, relatives, friends and associates. Food assistance requests were also made on social media platforms. Thus, because social media tools are user-friendly and inexpensive, the interaction can be instant and conducted in real-time, making the

social media platforms resourceful in communicating issues related to food remitting. In addition, social media sites empower food remitting migrants with the capacities to communicate and find the reliable, quickest, accessible and cheapest channels to transfer food items.

Moreover, social media was vital in utilising mobile food transfer channels. For example, mobile remittance corporations gave consumers a choice to create food orders or generate transactions on social media sites. Therefore, this research managed to underscore and demonstrate the multi-layered connection between social media and food remitting in the context of drivers, nature, features and channels of food transfers. The research is valuable in comprehending the significance of social networking tools such as social media that facilitate and aid food remittance transfers. The association between social media and food remittances has never been investigated comprehensively or systematically in the discussions, research or literature on remittances. In addition, there is a scarcity of methodological or scientific studies or research on social media and remittances in the context of the literature on Zimbabwe, South Africa and remittances. Therefore, this thesis provided comprehensive and methodological research that discovered the manifold ways social media and food remittances are connected.

Third, the study established the significance of the utilization of digital/mobile channels in transmitting food. In the literature on remittances, goods or in-kind remittances such as food items are primarily conducted through informal channels. Likewise, the study revealed that informal channels like transport carriers, personally, friends, associates, relatives or family/household members are chosen because they are cheap, accessible and dependable. Striking was the uncovered utilization of digital/mobile channels to transmit food items because they are reliable, accessible, user-friendly and speedy. In this research setting, mobile channels were demonstrated to be valuable, particularly in periods of crisis, such as the Covid19 pandemic and travel limitations, which restricted the use of informal channels to remit food. The uncovered utilization of digital/mobile channels to remit food is notable, considering that the evolving literature on mobile technologies and remittances has primarily focused on channelling cash remittances. There is limited attention to channelling goods/in-kind remittances through digital/mobile passages. Therefore, this research was able to address the research gap in transferring goods/in-kind remittances such as food items through digital/mobile channels that are dependable, accessible, easy to use, and rapid.

9.4 Recommendations

This thesis indicated that broad definitions of remittances in the literature refer to transfers of resources in cash or in-kind, including food, from the place of destination to the place of origin. However, the study concurred with scholars (Crush and Caesar, 2016; Crush and Caesar, 2018; Crush and Caesar, 2020) who noted that literature and policy discussions on remittances have mainly focused on cash transfers and scarcely on in-kind remittances such as food transfers. In-kind remittances, specifically food transmissions, are equally important to the families and household members left behind in the place of origin. It is evident in the literature that food remittances from international migrants have been largely neglected in methodological and in-depth research on remittances. There is an overabundance of research, studies and policy debates that show the patterns, nature, and trends of cash remittances, including the connection between remittances and the development agenda.

On the other side, there is limited literature, data and debates on food remittances across borders and their contribution to development. Most importantly, food remittances are helpful for families/households in their daily food consumption and reduce food insecurity levels. Consequently, there is a necessity for further research and policy discussions on international food transfers to address the cash remittances bias and show how food transfers to loved ones left behind in migrant-sending countries are of great significance. Notably, there is a need for policy attention and further studies/research examining cross-border food remittances and their impacts on households' food and nutrition security. Additionally, the thesis probed several matters regarding the connection between social media and food remittances, including how migrants navigate the food transfer process. The study illustrated how social media transforms the international food transfer process.

The position of this thesis is that more studies/research, especially in other urban areas in the global south, should interrogate the emerging link between social media and food remitting, especially considering that the association has a developmental effect. Further research should look at the opportunities, benefits, challenges and risks related to the various levels of the cross-border food remitting phenomenon in the context of social media networking. The assumption is that the relationship between social media and cross-border food remitting is not unique to Zimbabweans in Cape Town, South Africa. Additional in-depth and comprehensive studies/research can also provide helpful information in addressing the association between

social media and food remittances. The migrants and migrant networks should also expand or pay more interest to social networking on social media that can provide pathways for the flow of valuable information related to their social and economic activities, such as the transfer of remittances.

Lastly, the emerging literature on mobile/digital remittances has primarily focused on cash transfers. This study uncovered that food remittances could also be transferred swiftly and, in some cases, cheaply using digital transactions and mobile technologies. There is a need for the body of knowledge and policy debates on remittances to also focus on channelling food items through digital transactions/mobile technologies from the destination to the origin places. More attention from policymakers and researchers is recommended to technological innovations such as social media, digital platforms, and mobile pathways that contribute significantly to channelling food remittances. The migrants and their families or beneficiaries should pay attention to various alternative, convenient and accessible channels of transferring food remittances, especially in times of crisis where common remittance channels can be disrupted.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

Research Title: Food remittances: The evolving role of social media in food remitting, evidence from Zimbabwean Migrants in Cape Town, South Africa

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND DATA

1) Nationality (Zim) 2) Location [ ] 3. Sex: [Male = 1] [Female = 2] [ ]

4) Age Category

(1)	23 - 26	(2)	27 - 30	(3)	31 - 34	(4)	35 - 38	(5)	39 - 45	(6)	46 - 50	(7) 51+

5) Marital Status

(1)	Married	(2)	Single	(3)	Divorced	(4)	Widowed	(5)	Other: Please specify

6) Who is the head of the household/breadwinner?

(1)	Myself	(2)	Husband	(3)	Wife	(4)	Child	(5)	Other: Please specify

7) How many dependents do you have?

(1) One	(2) Two	(3) Three	(4) Four	(5) Five+	(6) None

8) Highest level of education completed?

(1) Primary	(2) Secondary	(3) University	(4) Vocational	(5) Other Please specify:

9) Were you employed back in Zimbabwe before migrating to South Africa? Yes =1; No = 2 [ ]

10) Are you, at the moment, employed in South Africa? Yes =1; No = 2 [ ]

11) If yes, what is your occupation? [ ]

12) If you are not employed, what is your occupation? [ ]

13) If you are not employed, what is your source of income? [ ]

14) How much do you earn, on average, per month? All your sources of income combined.

(1) R0 –R4000	(2) R4001 – R8000	(3) R8001 – R15000	(4) R15001 – R20000	(5) R20001+

15) What were the reasons for migrating to South Africa? You can choose more than one answer

(1) To meet the family needs of household/family members back home	(2) To find employment in South Africa	(3) To send remittances back home	(4) Economic and social crisis in Zimbabwe	(5) Food shortages/ food insecurity	(6) Political reasons/unrest	(7) Other please specify

SECTION 2: FOOD REMITTANCES AND SOCIAL MEDIA

16) Do you ever send food items/food remittances to Zimbabwe? Yes=1; No = 2 [ ]

17) If yes, how often do you send food items to Zimbabwe

1	More than once every month	2	Once every month	3	Every 3 months	4	Twice a year	5	Once a year	6	Whenever it is possible

18) What is the main reason you remit/send food items to Zimbabwe?

(1) Family/household members who receive the food request	(2) Basic goods the receivers might need	(3) They are cheap	(4) Food shortages or insecurity in Zimbabwe	(5) Other Please specify:

19) What type of food items do you send to Zimbabwe?

20) How much do you usually spend on food each time you send food items to Zimbabwe?

1	0 – R1000	2	R1001 – R2000	3	R2001 – R3000	4	R3001 – R4000	5	R4001 +

21) Which social media platform do you use the most?

1	Facebook	2	WhatsApp	3	Twitter	4	Instagram	5	Not on/not active on social media	6	Other, please specify

22) Which social media platform do you use the most to communicate about anything related to food remitting?

1	Facebook	2	WhatsApp	3	Twitter	4	Instagram	5	Not on/not active on social media	6	Other, please specify

23) Do you send food stuffs back home because of the information you see on social media? For example, posts and news etc. Yes=1; No = 2 [ ]

24) The decision to remit food was influenced to some extent by the communication with friends and information they post or share on social media? Yes=1; No = 2 [ ]

25) Are you inspired to send remittances back home because of the interactions or information sharing on social media with/by family/household members back home? Yes=1; No = 2 [ ]

26) Do you have any household or family members you are connected to and communicate with on social media that ask you on social media to send food items? Yes=1; No = 2 [ ]

27) Which main option does social media communication or information sharing help you to access?

1. How to send food to Zimbabwe?	2. What type of food to send to Zimbabwe?	3. When to send food to Zimbabwe?	4. Other (specify)

SECTION 3: FOOD REMITTANCES CHANNELS AND SOCIAL MEDIA

28) Which channel do you use the most to send food to Zimbabwe?

(1) Buses/ Trucks/Taxis/ transport carriers/couriers	(2) Mobile (mukuru)	(3) Mobile (malaicha)	(4) Myself when I go home	(5)Friends/ relatives/ people I know	(6) Other Please specify:

29) What is the main reason for primarily using the specific channel?

(1) Cheap or affordable	(2) Most accessible	(3) Most reliable	(4)Family/ household members/ relatives told me to consider it	(5)Friends told me about it	Other Please specify:

30) The channels you use the most to send food back to Zimbabwe are in some way or form based on social media posts and news? Yes=1; No = 2 [ ]

31) The channel you use the most to send food back to Zimbabwe is in some way or form based on social media communication (messages and calls)? Yes=1; No = 2 [ ]

32) Social media communication or information helps you to find mainly:

1. Cheapest channel to remit food to Zimbabwe?	2. Accessible channels to send food to Zimbabwe?	3. Quickest channels to send food to Zimbabwe?	4. Recovering missing or stolen food items	5. Reliable channels to remit	6. Other (specify)

SECTION 4: FOOD REMITTANCES CHALLENGES AND SOCIAL MEDIA

33) What main challenges do you face when sending food items to Zimbabwe? Please specify the main challenge you face:

(1) Delivery delays	(2)missing/ lost/stolen	(3)destroyed/ broken foodstuffs	(4) Expensive to remit food	(5) No challenges	(6) Other Please specify:

34) Social media communication and exchange of information or posts help you to deal with challenges related to food remitting? Yes=1; No = 2 [ ]

SECTION 5: FOOD REMITTANCES, SOCIAL NETWORKS AND SOCIAL MEDIA

35) Are you in any social media group that helps you in any way when it comes to food remitting? Yes=1; No = 2 [ ]

36) If yes, please specify the one platform that has the group/s you use the most in relation to food remittances:

1	Facebook	2	WhatsApp	3	Twitter	4	Instagram	5	Other, please specify	

37) Who are the members of this group?

1	Family/household members	2	Friends	3	Fellow Zimbabweans	4	Other, please specify

38) What are the conditions to join this group?

1	You have to be a Family or household members	2	You have to be a friend	3	Any Zimbabwean	4	Anyone	5	Other, please specify:

39) What is the most helpful information about food remittances you get from the main group you are in on social media?

1. How to send food to Zimbabwe	2. Types of food to send to Zimbabwe	3. When to send the food items to Zimbabwe	4. Other (specify)

40) Do you believe and trust the information related to food remittances you get from social media? Yes=1; No = 2 ☐

41) Have you been in a situation where you unexpectedly face an emergency, like a lack of money or resources to get food and send food back home, then use social media to communicate and successfully get assistance? Yes=1; No = 2 ☐

42) Have you been in a situation where you assist someone you know who has unexpectedly faced an emergency, like a lack of money or resources to get food and send food back home, then use social media to communicate with you? Yes=1; No = 2 ☐

43) Have you coordinated with people on social media on any part of the food remitting process? Yes=1; No = 2 ☐

SECTION 6: REVERSE FOOD REMITTANCES

44) Do you ever receive food items from Zimbabwe? Yes=1; No = 2 ☐

45) What is the main reason you receive food items from Zimbabwe?

1	They are staple/traditional/ popular food in Zimbabwe/like them	2	Food shortages/food security in South Africa	3	Other, please specify

46) If yes, who mainly sends you the food items from Zimbabwe?

(1) Family or relatives or household members	(2) Friends	(3) Workmates	(4) Other Please specify:

47) How often do you receive food from Zimbabwe?

1	Weekly	2	Every month	3	Every 3 months	4	Twice a year	5	Once a year	6	Whenever it is possible/ intermittently

48) How is food transmitted from Zimbabwe to you in South Africa?

(1) Family or relatives or household members	(2) Friends	(3) Workmates	(4)Buses/Trucks/ Taxis/transport carriers/couriers	(5) Other Please specify:

49) What type of food items do you receive from Zimbabwe?

Thank you!

APPENDIX II: QUALITATIVE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Research Topic: Food remittances: The evolving role of social media in food remitting, evidence from Zimbabwean migrants in Cape Town, South Africa

NB: Social media include What's App, Facebook, Facebook Messenger, Twitter, Viber, Snap Chat, Instagram, etc.

- Age and profession
- Do you send food items back to Zimbabwe? If yes, proceed to number 2
- How often do you send food to Zimbabwe?
- Is your decision to remit food influenced in any way by the communication you do, information you see or relations on social media? Please explain.
- Are you inspired to send food remittances back home because of the interactions or information shared on social media by family members back home? Please explain.
- Are you motivated in any way to send food remittances back home because of the information that is shared or that goes viral on social media? Please explain.
- Which social media platform do you use the most?
- Which social media platform do you use the most to communicate about anything related to food remitting? Please explain.
- Which channels do you use to remit food to Zimbabwe? Are the choices selected to transfer food to Zimbabwe based on any social media activity, interaction, or information sharing? Please explain.
- What type of food do you send to Zimbabwe? Why those specific foodstuffs? Please explain.
- Do you randomly send food to Zimbabwe? Does the situation in Zimbabwe at a specific time/period influence your decision to send food back home? Please explain.
- Do you get any information on the situation in Zimbabwe on social media? Please explain.
- How does social media help you decide which food to remit, when to remit, and how much to remit? Please explain.
- Which social media platform do you get more information about food remitting? Please explain.
- Do you think social media is helping you in any way regarding transferring food to your place of origin? Please explain.

- What kind of information related to food remitting do you gain on social media? Please explain.
- Are you in any social media group/groups that sometimes discuss anything related to sending food back home? Please explain.
- Are you in any social media group/groups that help you in any way when it comes to food remitting?
- Of all the social media groups you are in, which one is the most important to your food remitting? Please explain.
- How useful or beneficial is the information you gain from the social media group/groups you are in? Please explain.
- What is the most helpful information about food sending you get from the group/groups on social media? Please explain.
- Do you have any friend/s you are connected to and communicate with on social media in a way that helps you with food remitting? Please explain.
- Do you have any family members or relatives you are connected to and communicate with on social media in a way that helps you with food remitting? Please explain.
- Have you been in a situation where you unexpectedly face an emergency, like a lack of money or resources to get food and send food back home, then use social media to communicate and successfully get assistance? Please explain.
- Have you been in a situation where you assist someone you know who has unexpectedly faced an emergency, like a lack of money or resources to get food and send food back home, then use social media to communicate with you? Please explain.
- Do you believe and trust the information related to food remittances that you get from social media? Please explain.
- Have you coordinated with people on social media on any part of the food remitting process? 1. What to send 2. Sending the food by bus etc. 3. Others, please explain.
- What challenges do you face in the food remitting process? Does social media help you in any way to address these challenges? Please explain.
- Do you ever receive any food items from Zimbabwe? Please explain.
- Which channels are used by people back home to send food to you? Is the above linked to any social media use? Please explain.

- What type of food items do you receive from Zimbabwe, and why those specific items? Please explain.
- How often do you receive food from Zimbabwe? Please explain.
- What would happen to you if you do not receive the food items from home? Please explain.
- Do you have anything else to say about food remitting and social media? Please explain.

THANK YOU.